

JUNIOR ENGLISH COURSE

Book I

P·H·DEFFENDALL



Class LB 1631

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BOOK ONE

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BY

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PRINCIPAL OF THE BLAIR SCHOOL

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FOREWORD

THIS course in English is prepared to meet the demand for a new and more effective solution of the pressing problems of oral and written speech in junior high schools, and to bridge the chasm between the elementary and high schools where junior high schools have not been organized. It follows the most helpful suggestions presented in the *Reorganization of English in the Secondary Schools*, Bulletin, 1917, No. 2, National Bureau of Education, and the recent investigations of pupils' errors, particularly the study by Professor Charters and Miss Miller, and the more recent one by the Principals' Committee of Allegheny County, Pennsylvania.

The author has had much experience as a teacher and supervisor in elementary schools, as an administrator and teacher in Ben Blewett Junior High, as a teacher in Soldan Senior High, and as a Supervisor of English in the Continuation Schools of St. Louis. This wide experience gives him such knowledge of the whole field of English as to qualify him for preparing such a course both as to content and method.

Most of the material has been carefully tried out in class work and found successful. Almost all the model themes are taken directly from the work of pupils, particularly from the best. It is undoubtedly true that these can be better comprehended

and more easily imitated than illustrations from Milton or Addison.

In the preparation of this course the author is guided by two well defined and accepted ideals in present-day education — the project method and the socialized-classroom procedure. The projects are not imposed; neither are they outlines nor class exercises labeled projects. They possess all the characteristics of the real project that can be put into a book that is to be used by the children as a text.

In spirit we believe they possess the elements — purposing, planning, executing, and judging — as defined by Dr. Kilpatrick, and in scope they meet the standard as given by Dr. Charles A. McMurry. Situations based upon life issues are created through class discussions; out of these a probable life problem springs and provides the stimulant for a project. Should some other problem than that given in the text arise, the procedure given in the text provides an excellent type for the unexpected project. Each project offers repeated opportunity for the pupil to exercise his power to purpose, plan, execute and judge. The free and natural movement of project work functions in the socialized-classroom method. Plenty of opportunity is given for the socialized recitation through committee work, club organization, voting, programs, etc.

The work in composition is treated under thirty projects — ten for each grade. These projects involve life issues pertaining to civic interests, such as “Conducting a Health Campaign”, “Forming a Civics Club”, etc.; those involving vocational interest, as “Making a Study of an Occupation”,

etc.; those pertaining to school activities, as "The School Paper", etc.; and those that develop pride in good English and correct expression, as "Holding a Public Debate."

A simple treatment of grammar and good usage is given in the second section of each chapter. A good deal of space is given to the treatment of the sentence as a basis for written composition and good usage, but in order to prevent strained correlation, grammar is not presented as an outgrowth. The course contains the material that is still alive and helpful. Difficult and unusual constructions have everywhere been omitted, since many difficulties in construction arise from an effort to explain idioms of speech according to the rules of formal grammar. This course would pass over such constructions lightly, explaining them merely as idioms.

For the most part, sentences used in the exercises are such as were actually found in the speech and writing of pupils. Punctuation is treated along with the study of the sentence wherever the need arises, and the subject is made so easy, through few rules and many illustrations and explanations, that every boy and girl should be able to master the subject thoroughly. Wherever grammatical nomenclature is needed, that recommended by the Joint Committee of the National Education Association is used.

Much space is devoted to good usage. This should please those who believe that grammar should be functional and that it should be shorn of its needless classifications. We have gone directly to the work of the children to find their errors. We have found them. Guess-work, therefore, has been carefully avoided. Many errors of the children are

easy to correct, and the number is not great, but the need for good-usage drills is fully recognized.

Superintendents, supervisors, and teachers who are endeavoring to vitalize curricula through the project method and socialized-classroom activity will find this English course constructed upon these ideals.

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St. Louis, Missouri

SUGGESTIONS TO TEACHERS

THE plan of this course is intended to be both simple and logical. There are two sections in each chapter — the first presenting the project and the second the practical grammar. There are thirty projects, ten for each grade, and the course is divided into three parts — Part One for the seventh grade, Part Two for the eighth, and Part Three for the ninth.

The work of each chapter, together with such literary selections as may be chosen for study, should require three or four weeks for completion. If desirable, however, you may expand the work of the projects by having your pupils plan additional exercises. You may even lead your pupils to suggest and undertake new projects similar to those given in the book.

The suggestions given under the heading *Planning the Work* are intended mainly to serve as a guide for the pupils. You should see to it, therefore, that every boy and girl exercises initiative in planning.

To secure the best results, make use of the socialized recitation by putting into practice class organization, committee work, programs, debates, voting, etc.

Near the end of the work in each grade there is a reading project designed to take care of the problem of supplementary reading. It need not be deferred

to the close of the year, however; you may take it up much earlier, if you wish to do so.

No attempt has been made to treat grammar as an outgrowth of the project, as this would often result in a strained correlation. The work should be taken up in the order given, so as to serve as a foundation for correct speaking and writing.

P. H. DEFFENDALL

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PART ONE

ENGLISH FOR THE SEVENTH GRADE

JUNIOR ENGLISH COURSE

CHAPTER ONE

I. INTERESTING MATERIAL FOR SPEAKING AND WRITING

You are about to begin the study of speaking and writing English. At first you are likely to think that it will be dry and uninteresting. You may even be puzzled to know just how to begin. What subjects shall I select? What shall I say? What shall I write? — These questions no doubt stagger the mind, but you will find interesting material and subjects. You will examine your own experience and try to recall its most interesting parts. What you have done, what you have seen, what you have heard — in fact all that you have taken in through the senses makes up your experience. You have had a vacation with many pleasant days. Could you tell of the most interesting day and what made it so? You have had an outing that has been denied to some of your classmates. Write to them about it. You will enjoy telling about it, and they will be glad to hear your story. No doubt you are thinking of pleasant or unusual happenings in connection with recreation — games, drills, hikes, and the like. Tell about them. You are interested in

the social life of your community — the school, the church, the club, the Boy Scouts, the Camp Fire Girls, and various other organizations. Can you not think of dozens of subjects in connection with them? Then, too, from self-interest you must be thinking about the vocations. What are you going to be when you grow up? You will need to visit shops, factories, stores, and offices, and you will need to interview business and professional men before you decide. In these visits and interviews is the material for many an interesting theme. Can you not think of many an interesting title now?

PROJECT I. MAKING A LIST OF INTERESTING THEME SUBJECTS

The best list of theme subjects is the one you make for yourself. You can find them, as you have seen, in your own experience and much of your community life. Make your own list of subjects. They will be new and interesting.

The following is a list made by a class of St. Louis boys and girls. Read it over and determine whether you can do as well. Your subjects will, of course, be different, because you live in a different locality and do many different things :

- | | |
|-----------------------------|---------------------------------|
| 1. A day at Long's Gulch | 7. Frog-hunting on the Mis- |
| 2. A trip over the Columbia | sissippi |
| Highway | 8. An excursion on the river |
| 3. A swim at the Highlands | 9. A narrow escape |
| 4. Kicked by a mule | 10. My first visit to a country |
| 5. A day at Pike's Peak | school |
| 6. My trip to Missouri Uni- | 11. Exploring a haunted |
| versity | house |

12. A camp on the Meramec
13. A 'possum hunting trip
14. An unusual automobile tour
15. A tramp to the lighthouse
16. A day at Niagara Falls
17. A Thanksgiving breakfast in Forest Park
18. The last evening in camp
19. My first day in the Junior High School
20. A trip to a factory
21. A visit to our national capitol
22. The largest fire I ever saw
23. A trip to the Great Lakes Training Camp
24. Seeing the Border (Mexican)
25. A visit to the Custom-house
26. Through the Rockies
27. A country picnic
28. A day at Valley Park
29. How a horse was rescued
30. Around the camp fire
31. From Detroit to Toledo by steamer
32. A day at Coney Island
33. A "hike" in the country
34. A "hike" with the Camp Fire girls
35. A rainy-day picnic
36. A Hallowe'en party
37. Fourth of July in a country town
38. A trip to the Officers' Training Camp at Fort Riley
39. What I saw at Cliff Cave
40. Motoring from St. Louis to St. Paul
41. A lesson in horseback riding
42. What I saw when I visited the Federal Court
43. Hunting arrow-heads in Missouri
44. A Soldan-Central football game

Narrowing the Subject. It frequently happens that the subject is too indefinite for a short theme. Such a subject is *Camping* or *My Vacation*. You could probably write many pages on either of them, or you might be puzzled to know just what to say. You will need to take a point of view with reference to such a subject and write about a single phase of it. Let us see how we may narrow it and arrive at a suitable title.

Subject: Camping

Topic: What a delightful time
I had in camp on the Mera-
mec

Title: A day in camp on the
Meramec

Subject: Horseback riding

Topic: How I learned to ride
a vicious horse

Title: A remarkable lesson in
horseback riding

A title should be brief and attractive. It should generally arouse curiosity, but should not give away the point of the story. Study the titles of articles and stories in newspapers and magazines.

Narrow the following subjects till you arrive at a suitable title:

- | | |
|-------------|-------------|
| 1. Motoring | 4. Football |
| 2. Fishing | 5. Hunting |
| 3. Vacation | |

Writing the Title. The title of a theme should be written about two inches from the top of the page, and an equal amount of space should be left on either side. The first word and all important words should be capitalized. Prepositions, conjunctions, and the articles *a*, *an*, and *the* are written with small letters.

Compare your list of titles with those in the magazines. Try to improve them.

Subjects Based on Civics, Occupations, and Commercial Work. The study of elements of interest in civics, the occupations, and commercial work will afford many interesting subjects for oral and written themes. We need not look far to find material that will appeal to us.

1. Topics suggested by civics:

- (1) How I can help my school
- (2) How I can make health conditions better in my community

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- (3) We need more playgrounds. What can I do about it?
- (4) How I spent the day in the tenement district
- (5) What one man did to help the people of the slums
- (6) Tell some one of the advantages of your city. (Persuade him to move to your city.)
- (7) How taxes are levied and collected
- (8) A policeman's duties
- (9) What I can do to make my city more beautiful
- (10) Safety First: How may we help to educate the public for greater safety?

2. Topics suggested by the occupations :

- (1) A visit to a glass factory
- (2) A visit to a power plant
- (3) Why I wish to be an electrician
- (4) What I saw in a large department store
- (5) Why I want to be a merchant
- (6) A day in a hospital
- (7) A trip to a medical college
- (8) Why I should like to be a physician
- (9) Attending a session of court
- (10) Why I should like to be an employee of a railway company
- (11) Our railways
- (12) Why I should like to be a lawyer
- (13) A teacher whom I admire
- (14) Why I wish to become a teacher
- (15) Our minister's duties

3. Subjects suggested by commercial work :

- (1) Why I like to trade at —— store
- (2) A discourteous salesman
- (3) Doing an honest day's work
- (4) Learning all about my employer's business
- (5) An interview with a business man
- (6) Driving a bargain
- (7) How I earned my first money
- (8) A roadside fruit stand
- (9) Trying to please the manager

Interesting Subjects for Imaginative Writing. Although experience is the source of the material for most of our writing, the imagination also furnishes much. The imagination re-combines our experience into new wholes. It does not present what really is, but what might be. When we attempt to write from imaginative sources, we should therefore be careful to say nothing that will seem improbable and impossible. Of course fairy stories are improbable and impossible, but they do not pretend to be otherwise.

The following titles are suitable for imaginative writing. How many can you add to the list?

1. An imaginary visit to the trenches in Europe
2. An imaginary journey to some foreign country
3. A second Robinson Crusoe
4. If Ichabod Crane were my teacher
5. An ideal football hero
6. How I expect to become a millionaire
7. A conversation with Tom Brown
8. A trip to Venice in the time of Shylock
9. School in 1950

Organizing the Class. Much interesting practice in speaking from real motives comes from organizing the class and from the work of the class organization. When it is decided to effect an organization, a temporary chairman and a secretary should be elected. Any one who is interested may take charge and conduct the meeting until this is accomplished. Then the chairman may appoint a committee to draw up a set of rules or a constitution for the government of the class. These are read to the class, corrected by the class, and then adopted. The constitution will state the purpose of the organi-

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ization and will name the offices to be filled. It should also provide a name in keeping with the purposes which led to the organization. It should make use of parliamentary rules, so that order and fair play may be maintained. Your teacher will explain the more useful of these rules to you from day to day.

The president of the class, who is elected as soon as the constitution is adopted, will appoint a program committee. The committee will make a program assigning pupils to do certain work.

The class organization may discuss the topic, *What can I do to help my school?*

The president of the class should also appoint various activities committees as the need for them arises. The first member appointed will be chairman of his committee. Judges of speech errors should also be appointed or elected.

Talk to the Class. Be prepared to talk to the class on the following questions :

1. What is the most desirable name for the class organization?
2. What should be the purpose of the organization?

Planning the Work. The president of the class should appoint a chairman to investigate and report on each of the following topics, and he will select the members of his committees :

1. Subjects based on experience
2. Subjects suggested by civics
3. Subjects suggested by the vocations
4. Imaginative subjects

The chairmen should instruct their committees to prepare a list of subjects after consulting books and

magazines and after having talked the matter over with their parents and friends. Decide on a time for the reports of the chairmen.

Conversation. How should a notebook be kept? What should be put in it? How should it be arranged?

Reports of Committees. With the class as a club, each chairman of a committee should read his list of subjects and comment on them whenever necessary. The president will ask the class to discuss the subjects. When there is doubt as to the value of any subject, they should vote to accept or reject it. Finally, the class should vote on the list as a whole.

Written Work. Carefully write the entire list of subjects in your notebook for future reference. Be careful to arrange each group under the headings already used in committee assignments. Leave some space for additions to your list.

Narrowing General Subjects. The following subjects are entirely too general. Put in your notebooks the steps by which you arrive at a suitable title:

- | | | |
|-------------|-------------|------------|
| 1. Motoring | 3. Vacation | 5. Hunting |
| 2. Fishing | 4. Football | 6. Playing |

Talk to the Class. Choose one of the titles from your permanent list and prepare a talk for the class. The president will preside. When he calls on you, rise and say, "Mr. Chairman, I wish to tell the class about an interesting incident." There should be two judges of correct English appointed to report on errors at the close of the exercise.

Written English. Choose one of the subjects

suitable for imaginative writing and write a theme. If time permits, some of the themes should be read to the class.

II. SENTENCE-MAKING

Think of the name of some person or thing. State or ask something about the person or thing.

1. The farmer works.
2. Does the farmer work?

The foregoing expressions are sentences. All sentences are made by selecting a subject, and then by adding words that say something about the subject. *A sentence is the expression of a thought in words.*

The word that names something about which we make an assertion is called a *noun*. Certain words, called *pronouns*, may be used instead of nouns.

1. *John* works in the office.
2. *He* works in the office.

The word that names the person or thing about which an assertion is made is called the *subject of the sentence*. The word or group of words that asserts something of the subject is called *the predicate*.

Find the words that say something about the subject in the following sentences :

1. George plays ball.
2. Arthur drove the horses.
3. The dogs chased the fox.
4. The house was destroyed.

The words *plays*, *drove*, *chased*, and *was destroyed* assert something about the subject. *A word that asserts is a verb.*

Not every group of words is a sentence. Some groups merely assume. *To assume* means to take for granted.

The brook *running* through the field.

The expression above is not a sentence, because there is no word that asserts. *Running* merely assumes and tells the kind of brook. It may be made a sentence, however, by using a word that asserts.

The brook *runs* through the field.

Exercise 1

Which of the following are sentences? Find the expressions that are not sentences and change them to the form of sentences.

1. The dog took hold of the boy's slipper.
2. A little curly-headed boy, followed by a huge St. Bernard dog.
3. After breakfast we put our rooms in order.
4. At last, to the joy of everyone, dinner was announced.
5. After our journey which required two hours' time.
6. In the middle of the lake we passed a very large lighthouse.
7. We could see nothing at night but the moon.
8. The flag floating over the fort.
9. After we had finished the game.
10. Every one of us enjoyed the trip.
11. My sister and I spent the day in Forest Park.
12. The child crying for its mother.
13. Through the long nights of December.
14. It was late in July when we started for Cleveland.
15. During my vacation I spent two weeks in camp on the Meramec.
16. We spent the next day in playing tennis and swimming.

17. Although it was cool and cloudy.
18. Father told me to find some wood for the fire.
19. One Sunday in July we left in an automobile for Spanish Lake.
20. Virginia spent a week with the Camp Fire Girls in camp on the Meramec.
21. There were many automobiles standing in the grove.
22. After a meal very hastily prepared.
23. Everybody went to his own tent.
24. The pegs that held the tent were driven down farther.
25. A boy seldom forgets a camping trip.

Kinds of Sentence. Observe the following sentences and note any differences in them :

1. In winter wild geese fly to the south.
2. Has the snow melted?

The first sentence states, or declares, a fact ; the second asks a question. These are types of the two leading kinds of the sentence — namely, the *declarative* and the *interrogative*.

A *declarative sentence* is one that states a fact or expresses the will or wish of the speaker.

1. The birds flew to the trees. (*Fact*)
2. Bring me the book. (*Will*)
3. May success attend your efforts. (*Wish*)

An *interrogative sentence* is one that asks a question.

1. Who has done this deed?
2. What did the child do?
3. How old are you?

Exclamatory and Non-exclamatory Sentences. Every sentence is either exclamatory or non-exclamatory. If it expresses sudden or strong feeling, it is called an *exclamatory sentence*. All sen-

tences that are not exclamatory should be classed as *non-exclamatory*.

An exclamatory sentence may take the form of a statement or question.

1. You are a thief! (Statement)
2. What do we care for a lunch! (Question)
3. Leave my house! (Statement of the speaker's will)

Exercise 2

Classify each sentence as declarative or interrogative, exclamatory or non-exclamatory :

1. The boys gave a minstrel show.
2. How the children did enjoy their day's outing!
3. A week later my brother and I went to the Orphans' Home to live.
4. When was Virginia settled?
5. Do not waste your time.
6. As we were near the Mississippi River, we saw many fishermen's tents.
7. John looked at his watch and was surprised to find that it was twelve o'clock.
8. Did you not notice the great change in temperature near the lake?
9. Have you a savings account?
10. Oh! I would rather part with my ring!
11. The journey was long and difficult.
12. It took us a good hour to reach the cave.
13. Give every one a chance.
14. At noon John and I ate a very refreshing lunch.

Writing the Sentence. Every sentence should begin with a capital letter.

A declarative sentence should be followed by a period.

1. James bought a new book.
2. Leave your hat here.

An interrogative sentence should be followed by an interrogation point.

1. How old are you?
2. When did Washington die?

An exclamatory sentence should be followed by an exclamation point. Sometimes the depth of the feeling centers in a certain word. In this case the particular word should be followed by the mark.

1. How nobly he acted!
2. Alas! We shall see him no more.
3. Hurrah! Hurrah! Our team has won!

Exercise 3

The following is a pupil's theme entitled *A Climb up Pilot Knob*. Periods, question marks, and exclamation points have purposely been omitted. Copy it and put after each sentence the mark that should be used.

"Are you ready If so, put on your stoutest pair of shoes, for we are going to climb up Pilot Knob We will follow the old tramway down which cars of ore were transported when the iron mines were in operation We are now at the Cave of the Winds Do you not notice the great change in temperature when you come close to it Oh, the air is so cold that I wish I had a coat Come, let us continue our climb Here it is very steep Do be careful that you do not make a misstep, for it would send you down a drop of a hundred feet or more We have at last reached the summit and are rewarded with a magnificent scene that spreads out before us Here in

every direction are the hills in steady succession There, nestled in the valley, lies a little village And so on every hand we are surrounded by these natural beauties We descend at last, tired but thoroughly appreciative of our trip" — L. S.

Exercise 4

Write a short theme like the one in *Exercise 3*. Select a subject that will be suggested by an outing, a vacation, or some interesting phase of your experience.

CHAPTER TWO

I. SCHOOL AND COMMUNITY MOTIVES FOR COMPOSITION

Up to this time you have been working to find interesting subjects and material for themes. Now you are to learn that you should always have a purpose in mind or a motive for each oral and written theme. Indeed it is quite as necessary to have a purpose as a title. You will be asked to look again into school and community interests for such purposes or motives. Here you may find a reason for each piece of written or oral work. When you write a theme for the school paper, you have a definite purpose. You must also adapt the article to the needs of the paper. When you write to tell how you can help your school, you have a real motive, a civic motive. When you write a letter to a classmate who is absent on account of sickness or to one who is away on a vacation, you have a real reason for doing the particular piece of work. You may belong to a club or society. Write its minutes, or write an account of something that has happened in connection with its work. These few examples of the way that you may obtain motives will serve to make clear our point.

Projects for School and Community Motives.
Interesting projects may be drawn from the follow-

ing to motivate almost every type of your English work :

1. School activities
2. Pupil government
3. The motion-picture drama
4. Needs of the school
5. The school paper

School Activities. The term school activities refers to all literary, athletic, and social clubs. Some of our largest high schools have a great variety of them. We have in mind one such school that has besides its regular literary and athletic clubs a German club, a French club, a college club, a chess club, a stamp club, a glee club, a mandolin club, and a botany club. If you do not have your literary societies, it is well to set about organizing them. They offer opportunities for speaking and writing. The various athletic clubs — football, baseball, basketball, and track organizations — offer many interesting experiences suitable for oral and written themes.

Many suitable projects may easily be derived — for example, *Organizing our club* or *Preparing a program for our society*. These serve to motivate your English work.

Pupil Government. Your school may be governed wholly or in part by the pupils themselves. A student council may be formed before which matters of discipline and school welfare may be discussed. In each classroom an organization can be effected to take care of the order and thus relieve the teacher. It is not our purpose here to work out the details, but merely to call attention to

the possibilities of pupil government for real motives for oral and written themes.

Suppose, for example, you should choose for your project *Making a campaign for pupil government*. Here is material for a debate on the question: *Resolved that our school should adopt pupil government*. Then naturally the whole problem of school citizenship arises, and you find topics for numerous talks and written exercises — thus:

1. How we may prevent cheating in examinations
2. What is courteous conduct in the classroom?
3. How to secure good order during the lunch period
4. Honest recitation work
5. Why pupils should not copy themes

The Motion-picture Drama. No other form of entertainment seems quite so popular as the “movies.” How many motion-picture theaters has your community or city? Which of these do you like best? Why? You are interested in certain kinds of photo-plays. Can you tell just why?

A popular actor or actress is commonly called a “movie star.” You are no doubt acquainted with the work of some of them. Find out all you can about them and their salaries.

You may prefer to have your project take a different direction — for example: *The motion-picture drama — how may motion pictures be made helpful to the community?* If this project is chosen, you should plan a study of every phase of the subject through the different committees of your class.

The School Paper. Your school may decide to print a paper to be issued once every month. The following plan is merely suggestive: Every group

may elect two reporters, and the reporters from all the different groups may then meet and elect a business manager and editor-in-chief. After the different departments have been agreed upon, the board of reporters may elect the department editors. The departments should include editorials, school news, society notes, athletics, club meetings, jokes, and cartoons.

The publication of the school paper will be the chief project in the English work of the entire school year. You will find it interesting to write articles to appear in it — such as stories, poems, jokes, reports of assembly programs, athletic events, and expressions of your opinions on topics of school welfare (editorials). Your class may be asked to prepare a page or to submit the material for an entire department — for example, the literary department.

Each class may prepare a magazine of its own to be read to the class during one period of each week. It may be written by hand, or typed by the commercial pupils. Every effort should be made to make the material interesting and profitable, for the best articles can then be passed on to the school paper.

PROJECT II. THE CLASS MAGAZINE

Conversation. How many have seen a school paper or a class magazine? If possible, bring a copy to class. Why should we make a class magazine? How often should it be published? What interesting things could we include in it?

Talk to the Class. *Resolved, that we should have a class paper.* With the class as a club and the

president presiding, state your opinion on this question. If you prefer, you may make a list of the facts, or points, you wish to present. This you may call your outline.

Planning the Magazine. At a business meeting of your class, work out a definite plan for carrying out the project. Elect your editor and his assistants. Decide upon the departments you wish to have. Perhaps you will prefer to follow in a general way the plan suggested above.

Written English. Select one of the subjects in your permanent list, or some other one of equal interest, and write a story for the class magazine. When you have it properly prepared, submit it to the particular department to which it belongs.

Talk to the Class. Give the class an account of what took place at an interesting meeting of your club. Prepare a written report for the class magazine.

Written English. Write a report of a game or other athletic contest, an assembly program, or an interesting project in science or practical arts. If you prefer, write an interesting news article — that is, an account of something interesting that happened.

Class Program. The president of the class should appoint a committee to arrange a program. It may consist of the reading of the class magazine, talks by the editors, music, etc.

II. SUBJECT AND PREDICATE

You have seen that the subject of a sentence is a noun or a pronoun. To this class of words —

nouns, pronouns, and words so used — we may give the name *substantive*. Every sentence must contain at least one substantive, expressed or understood, and a verb.

A subject consisting of one substantive is a *simple subject*.

Henry caught the ball.

A subject consisting of two or more substantives is a *compound subject*.

Henry and William played ball.

A predicate consisting of one verb is a *simple predicate*.

William sang a song.

A predicate consisting of more than one verb is a *compound predicate*.

William sang and played.

Both subject and predicate may be compound.

John and Henry ran and played in the field.

Complete Subject and Complete Predicate. In almost every sentence more words are employed than mere substantive and verb. Certain other words, to be discussed later, help, or modify, the subject or the predicate. The subject substantive and the words that belong to it make up the *complete subject*. The predicate verb and the words that belong to it make up the *complete predicate*. In the following illustrations a vertical line is drawn between the complete subject and the complete predicate.

1. The round seed pods of the morning glory | burst open in due time.
2. Europe's small farms | must be intensively cultivated.
3. South America, with her small population, | has raw products to spare for European markets.

Exercise 1

Find the complete subject and the complete predicate of each sentence :

1. Complaints against doubly taxing professional men are growing in volume.
2. The family living next door to us has an automobile.
3. During the past summer I had the pleasure of visiting the Young Men's Christian Association camp in the Ozark Mountains.
4. At night we had a camp-fire program.
5. The soldiers of the American Revolution fought with great courage.
6. Our Scout Master told us not to make any noise.
7. The boys who went to the lake took pictures of the tents on the shore.
8. In the nest were six blue eggs.
9. The good citizen will strive to learn more about his community.
10. The Boy Scouts fished till five o'clock and caught about thirty catfish.
11. One day last summer when we were spending a few weeks on a small island in Green Bay, we were invited to take a trip to a lighthouse.
12. John and his friend failed to pass an examination in history.
13. The keeper of the lighthouse took his visitors up into the tower.
14. Did not the papers tell of British soldiers slaughtered like sheep?
15. The old Van Bibber Hotel in Mineola was often visited by Daniel Boone in the earlier days of our history.

The Skeleton of the Sentence. The substantive without its modifiers is called the *subject substantive*,

and the verb without its modifiers is called the *predicate verb*.

The *root* of the plant has medicinal value.

The subject substantive and the predicate verb make up the *skeleton* of the sentence. Every sentence has a skeleton. If you are puzzled to know whether a group of words is a sentence, test it by selecting its skeleton.

In questions the subject follows the verb.

1. How did the accident occur?

Skeleton: *accident did occur*.

2. Are you going to the game?

Skeleton: *you are going*.

Statements often begin with the introductory word *there*. In such cases also the subject follows the verb.

1. There were many homesick boys in camp.

Skeleton: *boys were*.

2. There was a day of reckoning.

Skeleton: *day was*.

In poetry and sometimes in prose the subject may follow the verb.

1. Pure was thy life.

Skeleton: *life was*.

2. Down sank the *Titanic* beneath the waves.

Skeleton: *Titanic sank*.

Exercise 2

Find the subject substantive and the predicate in each sentence. Write the skeleton.

1. One Saturday in April ten girls and I went on a hike to the country.
2. There are many interesting places near St. Louis.

3. When was Lincoln born?
4. There ensued a dangerous riot.
5. Then came a pause.
6. A boy kept after school does not like his teacher.
7. The rest of the day passed without anything of interest.
8. Obviously there are two ways of putting color on the screen.
9. Is there no hope at all for peace?
10. The study of community civics enlightens pupils about civic questions.

Verb Phrases. Often a verb consists of more than one word, but such phrases do the work of a single word. Observe the following examples :

<i>is made</i>	<i>has been made</i>
<i>are made</i>	<i>have been made</i>
<i>was made</i>	<i>will make</i>
<i>were made</i>	<i>will be made</i>
<i>has made</i>	<i>shall make</i>
<i>have made</i>	<i>shall have been made</i>
<i>had made</i>	<i>will have been made</i>

The parts of the verb phrase are sometimes widely separated.

1. Have you ever seen a wireless telegraph station?
Skeleton : *you have seen.*
2. The people could no longer bear their ruler's tyranny.
Skeleton : *people could bear.*
3. The officers were, however, very severely criticized by the soldiers.
Skeleton : *officers were criticized.*
4. Nothing has yet been done to help the unfortunate stranger.
Skeleton : *nothing has been done.*

Exercise 3

Write the skeleton of each of the following sentences :

1. Washington Irving has been called the Father of American literature.
2. A prize was given to the best speller.

3. Many Russian prisoners were severely punished by German officers.
4. The general did not seem to care for human life.
5. The man was afterwards taken away and placed in a filthy cell of the prison.
6. The Boy Scouts have been trained to honor the flag.
7. Did the war make all mankind nobler and kinder?
8. Apples for storing should be solid fruit.
9. The frog, owing to its peculiar structure, cannot breathe with its mouth open.
10. The raven has been found in every country.
11. Here was once fought a great battle.
12. Lincoln had, by a few strokes of his pen, freed the slave.
13. Castor gloves should be made of beaver.
14. In the Torrid Zone some of the lower animals closely resemble man.
15. The deer is furnished with supplementary breathing-places in addition to the nostrils.

CHAPTER THREE

I. GATHERING INTERESTING MATERIAL FROM LANGUAGE

Much helpful material for themes both oral and written may be obtained from conversation and books. Books are a veritable storehouse of information. It is, therefore, important that we learn first how to find a book and, second, how to use its index and table of contents. What reference books can you name? Which have you used?

Reference Books. In every library a number of reference books can be found in the reading-room. Such books include dictionaries, encyclopedias, works of biography, history, and geography. Books of synonyms may also be provided, as well as atlases.

Magazines and Periodicals. Much valuable material for oral and written themes can be obtained from magazines and periodicals. Some magazines are devoted almost wholly to the short story, the serial story, and the special article. Some are devoted to science and some to the trades and professions. Many are devoted to civic interests. The last named group includes such magazines as *The American City*, *The Literary Digest*, *The Survey*, and *The World's Work*.

Newspapers. Newspapers and magazines enable you to keep up with the times. The newspaper has come to be indispensable to the home. It contains material selected because it is interesting. You should therefore go to it for much of your material for composition. The news article and the editorial furnish excellent models for speaking and writing. Many timely topics in civics are treated from day to day. You can ill afford to overlook this fruitful source of interesting material for oral composition. What daily newspapers do you take? What other newspapers would you like to take?

PROJECT III. GETTING ACQUAINTED WITH THE LIBRARY

In your study of interesting projects in English, you will need to go to books and magazines for help again and again. It is therefore important in the beginning that you should find out what books are available for reference work and what they contain. Your project, then, will be *Getting Acquainted with the Library*.

Visiting the Library. Make a visit to the library and answer the following questions: What dictionaries do you find? What kinds of information do they furnish? What encyclopedias do you find? What kinds of information do they contain? How large are sets and what is the price of them? What works of biography are available? What works on synonyms do you find? Make a list of the dictionaries, encyclopedias, histories, works of biography, and atlases.

Talk to the Class. Tell the class what you have learned about reference books. If you prefer, select

a word whose meaning you do not know and look it up in the dictionary. Tell the class all the different facts you have learned about it.

A Second Visit to the Library. Visit the reading-room of the library and make a list of magazines and journals under the following headings: (1) story magazines, (2) magazines devoted to civics and public opinion, (3) those devoted to the trades and professions, (4) those devoted to science, (5) boys' magazines, (6) women's magazines, and (7) reviews. If possible, find out the name of the editor of each and the price of the magazine.

Talk to the Class. Tell the class the name of your favorite magazine and all the interesting facts about it that you have learned. Try to make everyone want to subscribe.

Making a List of Newspapers. Make a list of the daily newspapers in your community. Then make a list of five great national daily newspapers and be able to tell orally what you know of each.

Talk to the Class. After consulting with some one who knows the history of your own local newspapers, or after reading about them, tell the class the history of one of the daily papers.

Written Work. Put in your notebook a list of publications available for use in the library. Arrange them under the following headings: (1) reference books, (2) magazines and periodicals, and (3) newspapers.

II. THE LINKING VERB

In the following sentences, to what does the word *happy* belong? *generous?* *lawyer?*

1. The child *is* happy.
2. Henry *seems* generous.
3. Mr. Tilden *became* a lawyer.

In the first sentence *happy* describes *child*, and in the second *generous* describes *Henry*. Each belongs to the subject and is linked to it by the verb. The verb *is* links *happy* to *child* and *seems* links *generous* to *Henry*. In the third sentence *lawyer* refers to *Tilden* and means the same person. The verb *became* links *lawyer* to *Tilden* and asserts that they are the same person.

A verb that joins the subject to that which is asserted of the subject is a *linking verb*.

The most common linking verb is *be* and all its forms. Other verbs often used as linking verbs are *become*, *look*, *appear*, and *seem*.

1. The trees *are* tall.
2. The boy *became* a physician.
3. The building *looks* interesting.
4. The orator *appeared* self-conscious.
5. Mary *seems* quite contented.

Another group that may be used as linking verbs includes *taste*, *smell*, *feel*, and the like.

1. The orange *tasted* sour.
2. The rose *smells* sweet.
3. The object *felt* rough.

A linking verb is followed by an adjective or a substantive. An *adjective* is a word that describes or limits a noun or pronoun. When an adjective is joined to the subject by a linking verb it is called a *predicate adjective*. In the sentences stated above *sweet*, *sour*, and *rough* are predicate adjectives. You will hear more of adjectives under the subject of modifiers.

A noun that is joined to the subject by a linking verb is called a *predicate noun*. As the subject substantive is often called a subject nominative, the predicate noun may be called a *predicate nominative*.

The mayor is a clever *politician*.

Exercise 1

Select the linking verbs. Name the predicate adjectives and the predicate nouns. To what does each refer?

1. The story was interesting.
2. General Pershing was the leader of our armies in France.
3. You and your friends will be welcome at these recitals.
4. The situation became grave.
5. Brown is an excellent plumber.
6. The wages of sin is death.
7. Prices will be higher during the winter.
8. The lemon tasted very sour.
9. The cloth felt soft and smooth.
10. Is he a clever actor?
11. The owl looks wise.
12. After the war all nations were much wiser.
13. All the world is a stage.
14. No other course seems advisable.
15. How good you are!
16. The president is the leader of the organization.
17. His voice seemed very musical.
18. Waterloo is a famous battlefield.
19. Our country has become a world power.
20. The man became very angry.

Analysis. A simple form of analysis will reveal the structure of the sentence. Notice carefully the treatment of the following sentence:

“The larger man is the physician.”

This is a declarative sentence. The complete subject is “The larger man”, and “man” is the

subject substantive. The complete predicate is "is the physician", of which "is" is the linking verb and "physician" is the predicate noun.

Exercise 2

Analyze the following sentences :

- | | |
|-------------------------------------------------|------------------------------------------|
| 1. Jefferson was a popular president. | 6. Africa is a very large continent. |
| 2. Lincoln became an excellent orator. | 7. Franklin was a printer. |
| 3. A good citizen will always be patriotic. | 8. Wells is a noted novelist. |
| 4. The poor little boy seemed much discouraged. | 9. The surface seemed smooth. |
| 5. The city was unusually beautiful. | 10. A governor is a public servant. |
| | 11. The child looked ill. |
| | 12. The story has been a great favorite. |

Exercise 3

Write five sentences containing predicate adjectives.

Write five sentences containing predicate nouns.

CHAPTER FOUR

I. DRAMATIZATION

Perhaps you have already been asked to dramatize interesting stories from your reading and will enjoy further work of this kind. Whenever you take up a selection that can be told by means of dialogue and action, ask your teacher for her permission to change it to the form of a play. If the whole story or poem cannot be so treated, there may be one or more of the scenes that can be used.

When you dramatize a story, you make use of dialogue. You set down the name of the character, in small capitals when printed, and his speech follows it. Stage directions are inclosed in parentheses, usually following the name of the character. Each speech is a separate division. The play may consist of but one act or scene, depending upon the length of the story. In longer plays, however, there may be several acts and scenes. The setting is the time and place of the action. These are generally indicated at the beginning of acts and scenes. The characters, or persons taking part, are called the *dramatis personæ*.

A class in the Blewett Junior High School, of St. Louis, recently dramatized "Rip Van Winkle." It will be interesting to know just how they did the work. The story was, of course, first studied and

read in class. The children then asked to present it as a play, and upon this suggestion the teacher set them to work studying the form of simple drama.

Several short plays consisting of a single act were written. After this the story of Rip Van Winkle was taken up, act by act. The attempts of the children were read in class. After receiving class criticism, the children revised them. Following a second reading, they chose acts or parts of acts to be given before them as an audience. A committee was chosen to gather and combine all suggestions in the respective acts. This committee then referred their work to the class for approval. In the beginning the pupils were told that if they succeeded with the play, they might present it before other classes or on the stage at the weekly assembly of the grade. When the work was finished, pupils were chosen to represent the various characters. Later the play was given at an auditorium session and greatly delighted all who were present.

In order that you may see what can be done in this kind of work, the play as dramatized by the class is given below :

RIP VAN WINKLE

ACT I

<i>Time</i>	1765
<i>Scene</i>	Village of Running Water on the Hudson River
<i>Characters</i>	Rip Van Winkle Dame Van Winkle Children Van Bummel Tavern-keeper Several men

(Men at tavern table. Dame Van Winkle at the other side washing. Rip, with gun on shoulder, comes lazily down the road, turns and speaks to his dog. Children are playing marbles, tops, jumping the rope, and sailing ships.)

RIP (entering the stage from the center, whistles): Get ye back, Wolf. If thy mistress sees thee, it'll go hard with ye.

CHILDREN: Oh, look, here comes Rip Van Winkle. (They jump and clap hands for joy.) Hurrah, hurrah, for old Rip! Come and play with us. (They drag him over; Rip plays with them.)

(Rip tiptoes toward home.)

CHILDREN (running to him, seize him): Oh, don't go home. She has a rolling-pin ready.

(Rip bows head and shakes it, walks thus toward the tavern. Some of the children follow anxiously, while others continue with marbles and tops.)

ONE AT TAVERN: Oh, Rip, what do you think? George III is king of England.

VAN BUMMEL (reading newspaper, drawls): Well, would you look here; Indians lived in America before the white men came!

ALL (leaning toward Van Bummel): Indians! (Rip rubs head.)

VAN BUMMEL: Yes, men with red skins. (Tavern keeper brings out tray with pipes on it and passes them.)

DAME VAN WINKLE (muttering from house): If I get a hold of that worthless fellow, he'll remember it. He never did a day's work in his life. I'll make him step lively when he gets home. I suppose he's at the tavern again. (Rushes toward the tavern. Rip sees her coming, moves back chair, and raises hands in horror.)

DAME VAN WINKLE: You lazy good-for-nothing fellow, here you are again wasting the whole day. You bring nothing but ruin upon your family. The farm's going to wreck, fences down, weeds as thick as mud. Yet here you sit. Be on your way. (Rip staggers ahead, looks back, shakes head, turns quickly and leaves stage.)

DAME VAN WINKLE (starts to leave, turns): And you, Nicholas Vedder, what right have you to teach my husband such tricks? And you, Brom Dutcher, you'd better be a-digging in your garden instead of letting your wife work. You encourage my husband again and see which way the wind blows. (She

turns, looks around for Rip, stalks back home.) Well, of all things, gone to the mountains again, I suppose.

ACT II

<i>Time</i>	Same as in Act I
<i>Scene</i>	Catskill Mountains, Dwarf's home
<i>Characters</i>	Rip Van Winkle Leader of the Dwarfs Dwarfs Fairies

RIP (entering as though climbing a hill, collar turned up, pauses for breath): Wolf, Wolf, what ails thee? Thy mistress can't harm thee here. (Raises hand to eyes, staggers.) My, what a flash that was! Old Hendrick Hudson's lighting his pipe in the mountains to-night. (Balls roll for thunder.) He's surely rolling his big balls to-night.

VOICE: Rip Van Winkle! Rip Van Winkle! (Stops.)

VOICE: (Repeats same.)

RIP (looks surprised, points to some one in the distance): Why, what a funny thing is that a-coming up the hill? I thought nobody but me ever came this high.

(Enter dwarf carrying a keg, beckons to Rip, who approaches hesitatingly. Dwarf motions Rip to set keg down for him. Rip does so. Dwarf moves forward, beckons Rip to follow and bring keg. Dwarfs behind scene roll balls. Rip pauses to look around and guide beckons him to climb forward. Rip and dwarf reach top and former puts down keg where bidden. Other dwarfs, balls in hand, gather round. Guide motions Rip to serve contents. He passes it around. Dwarfs place ten-pins on the stage. Drill. Rip tastes the liquor, sits down to watch, and gradually falls asleep. At end of the drill, dwarfs gather the material, point in ridicule to Rip, and run from the stage. Rip sleeps.)

(Fairies enter, dance, and wake Rip.)

RIP (beard having grown a great deal, moves uneasily. Fairies disappear after final wave of the wand. Rip sits up, stretches, and looks around vacantly): Where am I? Won't the mistress give it to me for staying here all night? (Trying to rise.) Oh, my elbow! (Tries again.) Oh, my side! (Holding it.) I must 'a caught the rheumatis' a-sleeping on the wet grass. (Manages to rise and, after several painful attempts, picks up gun, which

falls apart.) Uh! that's too bad; now the Dame will scold. (Turns and looks around amazed.) Why this place is more than twice the size it was last night. (Stops, looks.) Am I dreaming, or sleeping, or waking? (Starts again.) I'll go home to my wife. She'll tell me if I'm asleep or not. (Goes limping.)

ACT III

Time Twenty years later, election time

Scene Same as in Act I

Characters Rip Van Winkle

Villagers

Rip's daughter

(Tavern on right, with several politicians standing in front. On left a crowd of men talking incessantly among themselves. Two or three cross stage, giving the appearance of a busy street. Rip enters on left with ragged clothes, rough long beard, hair mussed, and an old rusty gun on his shoulder. Children laugh, make fun, and stroke their chins, making Rip aware of his long beard. Rip looks in vain for his tavern friends; everything is changed. He stops, eyes the crowd, and then is halted by a strange bustling old man.)

MAN (drawing him aside): On which side do you vote?

ANOTHER MAN (pulls him by the arm, rises on tiptoe, whispers): Are you a Democrat or a Federalist? What brings you to the election with a gun on your shoulder and a mob at your heels? Do you want to breed a riot in the village?

RIP (sticking out his arms): Alas, gentlemen, I am a poor quiet man, a native of the village and a loyal subject of the King, God bless him. (Shouts from the crowd: "A Tory, a Tory, a spy, a refugee. Away with him!") People shout, raising closed fists.)

SELF-IMPORTANT MAN (calls for order, steps forward): What did you come here for? Whom are you seeking?

RIP: I am in search of my neighbors who used to keep about the tavern.

SELF-IMPORTANT MAN: Well, who are they? Name some of them.

RIP: Where's Nicholas Vedder?

MAN: Oh, he's dead and gone these eighteen years. There was a tombstone that used to tell about him, but that's rotten and gone too.

RIP: Where's Brom Dutcher?

WOMAN: Oh, he went off to the army at the beginning of the war. Some say he was killed at Stony Point; others say he died of disease. I can't tell — he never came back.

RIP: Where's Van Bummel, the schoolmaster?

MAN: Oh, he went off to the wars and is now in Congress. (Rip stands looking into vacant space, puts hand up to head turns it from side to side and sighs): Oh, what sad changes!

RIP (after a few minutes' silence): Does nobody here know Rip Van Winkle?

PEOPLE: To be sure. That's Rip Van Winkle yonder, leaning against the tree. (Rip turns around, only to see a lazy, ragged-looking fellow in one corner. Shakes head and sighs.)

SELF-IMPORTANT MAN: Well, who are you?

RIP: God knows. I'm not myself, I'm somebody else. No, I was myself last night when I went to sleep on the mountain. They've changed my gun, and everything is changed, I'm changed. I can't tell what my name is or who I am. (Politicians nod to one another and point fingers to their heads.)

WOMAN (poorly dressed, passes through crowd, carrying a chubby child in her arms, to get a look at Rip. The child, frightened at Rip's looks, begins to cry): Hush, Rip, hush. The old man won't hurt you.

RIP (straightening up and opening mouth and eyes): What is your name, my good woman?

WOMAN: Judith Gardenier.

RIP: And your father's name?

WOMAN: Oh, poor man, his name was Rip Van Winkle. It's twenty years since he went away from home with his gun and has never been heard from since. But whether he shot himself or was carried away by the Indians, nobody can tell. I was then but a little girl. (Rip looks in amazement with mouth open wide, leaning half forward, nearly on his toes.)

RIP: Where is your mother?

JUDITH GARDENIER: Oh, she also is dead. She burst a blood vessel in a fit of passion at a New England peddler. (Rip, very much excited, prances up and down, shaking head.)

RIP: I am Rip Van Winkle. Young Rip Van Winkle once — old Rip Van Winkle now. Does nobody know Rip Van Winkle? (Everyone stands amazed.)

AN OLD WOMAN (tottering out of the crowd, puts hand to

head, looks under it into his face) : Sure enough, it is Rip Van Winkle. It is himself. Welcome home again, old neighbor. Why, where have you been these twenty long years? Come and tell us your story. (She leads Rip to the tavern and the crowd gather about him.)

THE END

PROJECT IV. DRAMATIZING A STORY FOR THE CLASS PROGRAM OR THE ASSEMBLY PROGRAM

Planning the Work. Before attempting to dramatize a story with more than one act and scene, it will be necessary to turn several short selections into dialogue for practice. In this exercise each one should work individually. When you take up a longer story, you may follow the plan already suggested or work out one of your own.

Talk to the Class. Retell an interesting short story that you have read. Do not choose one that cannot easily be dramatized. The class should vote in order to determine which selections should be dramatized.

Written English. Write the dialogue for the selections you have just made in the previous exercise.

Choosing a Larger Project. Dramatize one of the following :

1. The Legend of Sleepy Hollow
2. The Pied Piper of Hamelin
3. Hiawatha
4. The King of the Golden River
5. Scenes from the Lady of the Lake
6. An interesting historical event.

Or choose other interesting stories comprising more than one act and scene,

Planning the Work. As far as possible, you should make your own plans for carrying out the work of the project and choose your committees. However, the following suggestions may be helpful. First, study the story carefully in class. Then decide upon the different acts and scenes that are to be presented. You will next work individually or in groups in preparing the dialogue. After the first attempts are finished, they should be read to the class and criticized. Make a note of all helpful criticisms and revise your work. After a second reading, a committee should be chosen to select the best work for each act. When the play is finished, it should be presented before the class and later before other classes.

Talk to the Class. Re-tell the story that has been chosen for dramatization.

Conversation. How many large divisions or acts should there be? How many small divisions, or scenes, within each act? What should each comprise? Decide definitely the acts and scenes to be given.

Written English. Working in groups or committees, prepare the dialogue for the different acts and scenes. Read your first attempts to the class. Let the class criticize your work and make a note of all good suggestions.

Talk to the Class. Tell the class about some interesting play you have seen given. Give the name of the leading actor or actress and tell the story briefly.

Written English. Make a second attempt to turn the acts and scenes into dialogue, using the suggestions obtained from the class. Choose a committee to select the best work for each act.

Class Program. When the dialogue is finished, it should be read and acted before the class. If the work has sufficient merit, it should be committed to memory and presented before other classes or at the meeting of the school assembly.

II. TRANSITIVE AND INTRANSITIVE VERBS

Which of the following expressions are complete sentences? Which need a word to complete the thought?

1. The fire burns.
2. The secretary wrote.
3. The children play.
4. The engine drew.
5. The negro drove.

You will observe that *wrote*, *drew*, and *drove* require the addition of a noun to complete the meaning of the sentence. Notice the effect of this change.

1. The secretary wrote a *letter*.
2. The engine drew a heavy *load*.
3. The negro drove the *horse*.

Compare these sentences with the following:

1. The secretary was a scholar.
2. The engine was very large.
3. The negro will be your driver.

Observe that the word *letter* does not refer to the subject and does not represent the same thing. *Wrote* is not a linking verb. *Drew* and *drove* are not linking verbs, because the words that follow them do not refer to the subject.

This new kind of verb represents the act as passing to a receiver. To this class we give the name *transitive verbs*. This classification should be interpreted liberally enough to include the possessive verb *have* and those that express the opposite of possession.

1. John *has* a coat.
2. The city *lacks* funds.

All verbs that are not classed as transitive are called *intransitive*. Some verbs do not require any word to complete their meaning. They are called *complete verbs*.

1. The soldiers *fought* bravely.
2. The sun *shines* brightly.
3. We *arrived* at noon.

The Object. You have already become familiar with *subject* and *predicate* and with *predicate noun* and *predicate adjective*. The new element which has just been introduced is called the *object*. A substantive that completes the meaning of a transitive verb is called the *object*.

Exercise 1

Select the object in each of the following sentences :

1. The secretary read the letter.
2. Each man bought a suit.
3. Henry has an important position.
4. We saw several automobiles in the park.
5. Our teacher needs supplies.
6. In the afternoon we picked wild strawberries.
7. The botany class took a very pleasant journey to the forest.
8. The governor supported the measure.
9. The people of St. Louis elected the mayor for a term of four years.

10. What work have you done?
11. The city has the power to enforce its ordinances.
12. The park commissioner controls the parks and playgrounds.
13. The mayor receives a salary of ten thousand dollars per annum.
14. The children picked up the paper.
15. Our books had no backs on them.
16. The food administrator gave advice to housekeepers.
17. Our soldiers bought some provisions.
18. The child broke the glass.
19. Everybody accused his neighbor of neglect.
20. What rights should a citizen exercise?

Voice. Notice the form of the verb in each of the following sentences :

1. Penn *made* a treaty with the Indians.
2. A treaty with the Indians *was made* by Penn.
3. Our team *will win* the game.
4. The game *will be won* by our team.
5. The enemy *captured* our first-line trenches.
6. Our first-line trenches *were captured* by the enemy.

You will see that the verbs in sentences one, three, and five represent their subjects as acting, and that those in sentences two, four, and six represent their subjects as receiving the act.

Voice is the form of the verb that shows whether the subject is acting or receiving the act.

The *active voice* is the form of the verb that represents the subject as acting.

1. John *drew* a picture.
2. The boys *camped* on the bank of the river.
3. The attorney *pleaded* the case.

The *passive voice* represents the subject as receiving the act.

1. A picture *was drawn* by John.
2. The case *was pleaded* by the attorney.
3. The slaves *were freed* by Lincoln.

The subject of voice is important only in the study of transitive verbs. It may be omitted in the consideration of intransitive verbs. Remember that transitive verbs in the active voice take an object and that in the passive voice the original object has become the subject.

Exercise 2

Classify the verbs as transitive or intransitive. Find transitive verbs in the passive voice. Name the object of all transitive verbs in the active voice.

1. Henry wrote his lesson to-day.
2. Charles was defeated in a race by William Welsh.
3. The boys laid their coats on the ground.
4. The police are arresting several local leaders.
5. The president of our class delivered an address.
6. Many people were slain in the recent riots.
7. The secretary made a report to the class.
8. We took a trip down the river in a house boat.
9. After dinner we built a big bonfire.
10. Three soldiers were struck by lightning.
11. The teacher gave John a book.
12. Our inkwells have been filled by the janitor.
13. Jackson did many heroic deeds for his country.
14. Everybody took off his hat.
15. The new building has been completed for several weeks.

Linking Verb and Transitive Verb Distinguished. You may be puzzled at times to distinguish between the linking verb and the passive voice of the transitive verb. Remember that the linking verb is followed by a predicate noun or a predicate adjective. It does not represent its subject as being acted on.

Exercise 3

Determine whether each verb is *linking* or the *passive* voice of a transitive verb.

1. It was voted unanimously to take a vacation.
2. We were soon convinced of our error.
3. Our visit had been a pleasure to us.
4. At the close of day we were very tired.
5. Bacon and eggs were fried for our supper.
6. The lake is about fifteen miles long.
7. We were driven ashore by the wind.
8. All of our party were awake at four o'clock in the morning.
9. Few plays are more popular than *Hamlet*.
10. The members of our club had been informed of the plan.
11. McKinley was assassinated by an anarchist.
12. The President will be glad of the success of our armies.
13. Have the books been ordered?
14. The cotton-gin was a great invention.
15. The cotton-gin was invented by Eli Whitney.

The Indirect Object. How many objects has each of the following sentences?

1. Washington gave the *country* her freedom.
2. The captain bought his *wife* a present.

You will observe that there are two objects in each sentence. One of these you have already learned to call the direct object. Find the direct object in each of the above sentences. The other object we may call the *indirect object*.

An *indirect object* is a noun or pronoun that shows to whom or for whom something is done. *Country* and *wife* are indirect objects in sentences one and two.

If the preposition is expressed with the indirect object, we do not call the noun an indirect object.

1. Washington gave freedom *to the country*.
2. The captain bought a present *for his wife*.

The verbs *teach* and *ask* sometimes take two objects. In such cases when the verb is changed to the passive voice, the object that remains is called a *retained object* — as, “I was taught *Latin*.”

Exercise 4

Find the direct and indirect objects in the following sentences :

1. The pupil brought his teacher a book.
2. The boy gave his mother an orange.
3. Father bought me a suit.
4. The lawyer asked me many difficult questions.
5. Laura taught John French.
6. John was taught *French*. (*French* is called a *retained object*.)
7. The king gave the colony a charter.
8. The city furnished him his books.
9. John made his sister a table.
10. Father bought me a Liberty Bond.
11. The clerk wrote me a letter.
12. Vacation gave us more time for play.
13. Fulton gave our country a very practical invention.
14. The wealthy gentleman purchased a yacht for his son.
15. Roosevelt gave the country the Panama Canal.

The Adverbial Objective. Sometimes a noun may modify a verb and show the measure of time, value, distance, weight, and the like.

1. Webster worked *many years* on his dictionary.
2. The land cost *one hundred dollars* an acre.
3. Lincoln walked *many miles* to borrow books.
4. The box weighed *twelve pounds*.

Exercise 5

Find the adverbial objectives in these sentences and state what they modify :

1. We walked four miles into the country.
2. The chicken weighed four pounds.
3. Good cloth costs one dollar a yard.
4. The children studied three hours yesterday.
5. Our representative ran a mile.
6. How many pounds does the hog weigh?
7. Your book will cost a dollar.
8. We slept six hours on the boat.
9. The train traveled fifty miles an hour.
10. We shall return home Wednesday.
11. Some birds fly south in the winter.
12. The club members walk two miles every day.

The Objective Predicate. We have already learned that after a linking verb a noun, pronoun, or adjective may be used to refer to the subject. In such constructions the predicate noun or pronoun or adjective really belongs to the subject. In like manner a noun, pronoun, or an adjective may be used after a transitive verb to describe or explain its object. In the first sentence below, *secretary* completes the meaning of *made* and explains the direct object *Stanton*. In the second, *innocent* completes the meaning of *believed*, and describes the object *him*.

1. Lincoln made Stanton *Secretary of War*.
2. We believed him *innocent*.
3. The people elected Taft *President*.

Later we shall learn that infinitives and participles, which are used like nouns and adjectives, may be objective predicates.

If we change the verb in this construction to the passive voice, we shall have in effect a linking verb, and the objective predicate becomes a predicate nominative or a predicate adjective.

1. Stanton was made *Secretary of War*.
2. Taft was elected *President*.

Exercise 6

Select the objective predicates and tell what word each explains or describes.

1. The society elected Charles chairman.
2. Wilson appointed Bryan Secretary of State.
3. The colonists made America their home.
4. Scholars call Lowell a great poet.
5. The jury considers the criminal insane.
6. The speaker declared the motion lost.
7. We pronounced the new novel very interesting.
8. The man named his son Rufus.
9. The painter made the house beautiful.
10. People call the senator a traitor.
11. The American people considered the war just.
12. The boy made the stick straight.

Analysis.

1. How to analyze a sentence with a direct object.

“The secretary wrote a letter.”

This is a declarative sentence. The complete subject is “The secretary”, of which “secretary” is the subject substantive. The complete predicate is “wrote a letter”, of which “wrote” is the predicate verb and “letter” is the object.

2. How to analyze a sentence with an indirect object.

“Washington gave the country her freedom.”

This is a declarative sentence. The subject is “Washington.” The complete predicate is “gave

the country her freedom ", of which " gave " is the predicate verb and " freedom " the direct object. The indirect object is " country."

3. How to analyze a sentence with an adverbial objective.

"Webster worked many years on his dictionary."

This is a declarative sentence. The subject is " Webster." The complete predicate is " worked many years on his dictionary ", of which " worked " is the predicate verb and " years " the adverbial objective.

4. How to analyze a sentence with an objective predicate.

"The jury considered the criminal insane."

This is a declarative sentence. The complete subject is " The jury ", of which " jury " is the subject substantive. The complete predicate is " considered the criminal insane ", of which " considered " is the predicate verb and " insane " the objective predicate describing the object " criminal."

Exercise 7

Analyze the following sentences :

1. The American government has declared war.
2. The superintendent gave the problem serious study.
3. My attorney made me a present on my birthday.
4. In the evening I worked an hour for the banker.
5. Many helpers made the task easy.
6. We left home very early.
7. The new building cost a hundred thousand dollars.
8. The child weighs sixty-five pounds.
9. One day a friend and I set out some sweet-potato plants.
10. The carpenter made the board smooth.
11. Patience and industry will conquer many difficulties.

12. The Chamber of Commerce elected Davis president.
13. The man called the child Harry.
14. The clever politician gave the audience false arguments.
15. The church has greatly benefited civilization.
16. The tailor made my brother a very beautiful suit.
17. The high schools and colleges have given us better citizens.
18. His farm yielded him a large income.
19. Ignorant people make their lives miserable.
20. The governor appointed Mr. Wood president of the board.
21. John and James swept the room and the hall.
22. The man planned and constructed a beautiful residence.

CHAPTER FIVE

I. THE SCHOOL PAPER

Preparing Stories and Articles for the Paper.

You no doubt know that many of the stories and articles submitted to your school paper or your class magazine are rejected. It is because they are not interesting.

If you would make your themes interesting and acceptable for publication in the paper, you must choose suitable subjects — subjects that are not too large. Such subjects as *How I Spent My Vacation* or *Our Auditorium Sessions* are undesirable, because there is so much to say about them that we can give merely a bare catalogue of events. If we attempt more than this, we find it necessary to break our theme into several divisions, or paragraphs. It is, then, much better to select a single phase of such subjects — for example, *An Amusing Mishap at a Picnic*. Perhaps you can think of subjects of this kind yourself to suggest at the class recitation, or it may be that your teacher will ask the class to make their own list of theme subjects.

In order that you may see the difference between a theme that is merely a catalogue of events and one that is really interesting, read carefully the following description of the storm. Would it be interesting reading for the school paper?

One day in August we had a terrible storm. At first I noticed a little cloud. It grew very large in a short time. It began to boil up. Suddenly the wind arose, and dust and leaves began blowing everywhere. We ran into the house and shut the doors and windows. Then it became dark. I turned on the lights and sat down. The rain beat against the windows and the wind roared. I was almost afraid to speak. It seemed a long time before it cleared away.

Note the improvement when written as follows :

It had been a very, very hot day in August, when suddenly a little speck appeared in the sky. In a short time it grew to a mammoth cloud, boiling like the waves of the sea. A great wind, too, suddenly appeared and drove the dust and leaves along before us. Greatly frightened, we rushed into the house and closed all the windows and doors. We felt rather secure now, but suddenly it became so dark that we had to turn on the lights. Then the rain began to beat violently against the windows, and the wind roared in the tree-tops. Oh, would it ever stop? The minutes dragged along like hours, but after what seemed an age the storm passed, and the sky became clear and beautiful.

If you examine carefully the first theme, you will see that the sentences are short and poorly connected. There is greater variety and consequently greater interest in the statements of the second. In your themes try beginning some sentences with *when, where, while, since, because, as*, and the like. It helps also to select words that suggest action or make vivid pictures. Which words in the second theme are of this variety? Try also to get a good start. A good beginning sets the standard for the whole composition. Compare the opening sentences in the above stories. Is not the second a great improvement over the first?

Your attention has been called to the fact that the sentences in the first theme above are short and poorly connected. Another error quite as serious,

however, is that of connecting these short ones by *ands* — the “and” habit. Sometimes a pupil will join all his statements in this way, running them into a sort of long single sentence. This is called the “run-on” sentence. To avoid this fault, read your themes carefully when you finish writing and strike out unnecessary *ands*. It is well, too, to vary your sentences in structure and length.

Again, if you wish to make your themes interesting, you must plan them carefully. This requires that you select your material with care and arrange it in logical order. The editor would not accept an article that was a mere jumble of sentences.

Paragraphing. Up to the present time you have been speaking and writing without much thought about the divisions of your themes. You have perhaps felt that certain sentences belonged together, and that others seemed entirely out of place. Sentences that belong together form a unit of thought. *A group of sentences that belong together is called a paragraph.*

The writer should always tell his reader when he begins a new paragraph. He informs the reader by indenting the first line of the new division. To indent means to begin the first word of the first line a half-inch or an inch farther to the right than the left-hand margin.

In order to paragraph well you must think your subject through. You must re-think and rearrange your thoughts so that they will stand in such relation that your hearer or reader can easily follow you. This means that you must hold to one part of your subject in each division. It is not hard to learn that a new paragraph must begin to tell: here

what happened next morning, here you visit another place, here some new person joins you, here you have described the outside of the house and now you must describe the inside, and so on.

In the work of paragraphing and planning logical arrangement of your material, nothing is more helpful than the making of an outline. Suppose, for example, a pupil wishes to write about a trip he has taken to a training camp. His outline might include the following :

A Visit to the Officers' Training Camp at Fort Riley

1. Arrival at Junction City
2. The morning work of the soldiers
 - (1) Bayonet practice
 - (2) Digging trenches
3. The afternoon work of the soldiers
 - (1) Study
 - (2) Dress parade
4. Lowering the flag
5. Conclusion

Note that each part of the outline stands in the right position. Naturally the lowering of the flag comes near the close and the afternoon work follows the morning work. This is the outline for a story, and things must be told in the order in which they happened. The problem of arrangement is, therefore, not very difficult in this case.

A Visit to the Officers' Training Camp at Fort Riley

We arrived at Junction City at 1:30 in the afternoon and spent the rest of the day at the hotel. In the morning we went to the post. The men had been up since five o'clock, had taken breakfast, and were ready for the day's work.

They say that the work is hard and after being there and seeing them, I believe it. Here were a group of men at bayonet practice, poking strange looking dummies suspended from a pole.

Over there were some men digging trenches like so many laborers. At the other end of the grounds were still others at target practice.

How fast the time passed. It was now noon and the men went to lunch while we ate under the shade of a great tree. Then they went to their afternoon study and late in the afternoon to supper. After supper they had a dress parade. It was simply wonderful — at least I thought so.

But I must not forget to tell you of the most wonderful event of the day — the lowering of the flag. The men all stood at attention while the band played the *Star Spangled Banner*. To see them impressed me very much.

The men were now free till “taps” were sounded. We went over to visit with Father and my cousin till it was time for us to go. Then, after telling them good-by, we came back to St. Louis. — H. T.

The Paragraph in Conversation. In conversation every separate speech should be written as a paragraph. This tells the reader that the speaker has changed, and sometimes relieves the frequent use of such expressions as *said she*, *replied he*, etc. More will be said about writing the quotation in a later chapter, but we may lay down the general rule that the exact words of another should be enclosed in quotation marks. If the quotation is short, it is generally set off from the words that introduce it by a comma. Observe the following illustration :

“Dr. Livesey,” he said, “in how many weeks do you and Squire expect the consort?”

I told him it was not a question of weeks, but of months; that if we were not back by the end of August, Blandly was to send to find us; but neither sooner nor later. “You can calculate for yourself,” I said.

“Why, yes,” returned the captain, scratching his head, “and making a large allowance, sir, for all the gifts of Providence, I should say we were pretty close hauled.”

"How do you mean?" I asked.

"It's a pity, sir, we lost that second load. That's what I mean," replied the captain. "As for powder and shot, we'll do. But the rations are short, very short — so short, Dr. Livesey, that we're, perhaps, as well without that extra mouth."

And he pointed to the dead body under the flag.

— *Treasure Island*.

PROJECT V. A WRITERS' CONTEST

Planning the Project. In planning the project, the president of the class should preside, and the members should address him when they wish to speak. The following questions should be considered: What kinds of material can be accepted? What are the conditions of the contest? When must all work be turned in?

Your class discussion will probably result in an outline plan similar to this:

I. Kinds of material to be accepted:

1. Stories
2. Articles (news articles and editorials)
3. Poems

II. Conditions of the contest:

1. Stories and articles must be written on one side of the page
2. They must be properly paragraphed
3. They must be free from errors
4. They must be interesting

III. Date for closing the contest

Suggestive List of Subjects. The following list of subjects may prove helpful to you in selecting the title for your story or article. You may, however, go to the permanent list in your notebook or choose a subject entirely new:

I. Subjects for stories :

1. The most difficult task I ever undertook
2. An amusing incident on the playground
3. A new Christmas story
4. The storm that drove us home
5. Down the river in a boat
6. Seeing the country in an automobile
7. Called to an accounting
8. Another Rebecca

II. News articles :

1. Our team won
2. The best assembly session this term
3. Our new baseball club
4. An interesting visitor

III. Other articles :

1. Better order in the lunch room
2. Advantages of a school club
3. Keeping the school grounds clean
4. Backing the school officers
5. What I intend to do when I am grown up
6. Thrift in the junior high

Talk to the Class. Re-tell a story or give the substance of an article that you have read. Choose something which you believe will illustrate what is suitable for the school paper. Tell the class why you think such material desirable.

Written English. Prepare an outline of one of the foregoing subjects. First collect your material and then arrange it.

Talk to the Class. Speak from the outline you have just prepared. Let a pupil preside and address him as chairman. Take a good position before the class and speak distinctly, using the best language you can command. It is well to observe the simpler rules of parliamentary practice. For exam-

ple, when called on to speak, you should arise and say, "Mr. Chairman, I wish to speak on the subject —— or tell the story ——." The chairman will then tell you to give your talk. He may say, for example, "William will address the class." When you have finished, the chairman will ask for suggestions which should help you in preparing your article for the paper.

Written English. Prepare the final draft of your story or article. Make sure that you meet the requirements of the contest.

Class Program. When the stories are all ready, they should be read before the class. No comments should be made at this time. When all have been read, the class will vote to determine which are good enough to submit to the school paper.

II. AUXILIARY VERBS AND THE VERB PHRASE

Verbals. Verbs have only a few inflexional forms. Below are given the forms of some common verbs :

begin, begins, began, beginning, begun
write, writes, wrote, writing, written

The first form of the verb, commonly called the present form, is the root form. From it the verb is named. Two of the above forms do not assert — the last two — *beginning* and *begun*, and *writing* and *written*. These words that do not assert are called verbals. Although they do not assert, they are

capable of taking the same modifiers and words to complete their meaning as the verb.

We saw John *running rapidly to the house*.

In the foregoing sentence *rapidly* and *to the house* modify *running*.

A form of the verb that does not assert, but that is capable of taking the same kind of modifiers and words to complete its meaning as the verb, is called a *verbal*.

Verbals include *infinitives*, *participles*, and *gerunds*. Read carefully the following sentences:

1. *To write* stories was his delight.
2. The crowd saw the man *falling*.
3. *Running* fast is good exercise.

In the first sentence *to write* is an infinitive, in the second *falling* is a participle, and in the third *running* is a gerund.

1. **The Infinitive.** The infinitive form of the verb is the root form usually preceded by the word *to*. For example, we may mention *to run*, *to jump*, *to hide*, *to play*, *to fall*, *to hear*, *to leave*, and many more. Sometimes the word *to* is not used with the infinitive — as, “He dared not *go*.”

Read carefully the following sentences:

1. *To run* is good exercise.
2. His duty is *to fight*.
3. I like *to play*.
4. He could do nothing except (*to*) *whistle*.

Like a noun, *to run* is used as the subject of the first sentence and *to fight* as predicate nominative in the second. *To play* is used as the object of the

verb in the third sentence, and *to whistle* as the object of the preposition *except* in the fourth.

Notice how the infinitives are used in the following sentences :

1. Houses *to rent* are scarce.
2. The work is easy *to do*.

To rent modifies houses and is therefore used as an adjective. *To do* modifies the adjective *easy* and is used as an adverb.

2. The Participle. Observe the verbals in the following sentences :

1. The child *running* to his mother is called Burl.
2. Time *lost* cannot be found again.
3. *Shouting* aloud, the boy startled all the assembly.

You will see that *running* modifies *child*, *lost* modifies *time*, and *shouting* modifies *boy*. They are used like adjectives. These verbals are not, however, root forms of the verb. There are several participial forms of the verb as will be illustrated by the following :

eating, eaten, having eaten, having been eaten
going, gone, having gone
working, worked, having worked
striking, struck, having struck, having been struck
falling, fallen, having fallen

Sometimes a participle is used with a noun or pronoun to make up a phrase. Read the following illustrations :

1. *The work being done*, I returned to the office.
2. *The gate opening*, the horses entered the yard.
3. *The time having been fixed*, I tried to keep my appointment.

The phrases tell something about the predicate verb and are therefore adverbial phrases. For example, the phrase in the first sentence tells the time or the reason for my returning — thus :

The work being done, I returned.
When the work was done, I returned.
Since the work was done, I returned.

Some writers call such a phrase the *absolute phrase*.

3. **The Gerund.** A verbal ending in *ing* may be used as a noun.

1. *Serving* your country is noble conduct.
2. Roosevelt liked *hunting* bears.

In the first sentence *serving*, like a noun, is the subject of the sentence. In the second, *hunting* is the object of *liked*.

Verbals may be more easily remembered if we define each kind.

An infinitive is a verbal of the root form used as an adjective, noun, or adverb.

A participle is a verbal not of the root form used as an adjective.

A gerund is a verbal ending in *ing* and having the uses of a noun.

Exercise 1

Select the verbals in the following sentences.

Classify them as infinitives, participles, or gerunds.

1. The building having the tall belfry is our church.
2. To hunt is excellent sport.
3. Loving one's country is not enough to do.
4. Looking from the corner of the yard, one can see a tall tower.

5. The cap, torn and dirty, was picked up by a tramp.
6. Left behind, the horse could not find his way home.
7. His going away was a surprise to all.
8. Keeping in the rear, we soon managed to escape.
9. I forgot to mention the falls.
10. In the harvest field there is work to do.
11. In the village we stopped to buy lunch.
12. The men were ordered *to go*. (The infinitive is a *retained object*.)
13. Studying Latin is no easy task.
14. The child tried to go to its mother.
15. Seeing the accident, the officer called an ambulance.

Auxiliary Verbs and the Verb Phrase. Certain verbs are rarely used except with verbals to make up a phrase that performs the office of a verb. Notice the following :

is written, was struck, did run, has been killed, will be hurt, had gone

Verbs so used are called *helping*, or *auxiliary*, verbs. They include *be, have, do, shall, will, may, can, must, could, would, should*, and a few others. *Be, have, do*, and *will* are used also as principal verbs — as,

1. God *is*.
2. I *have* a book.
3. The carpenter *did* the work.

When an auxiliary verb is used with a verbal, it makes up a *verb phrase*.

Since the verb phrase has the use of a verb, it may be *transitive, complete*, or *linking*. The following sentences illustrate these kinds of phrases.

1. The President *has signed* the bill. (Transitive verb phrase.)
2. The general *has spoken*. (Complete verb phrase.)
3. The Russian people *will be* free. (Linking verb phrase.)

Exercise 2

Select the verb phrases in the following sentences. Determine whether each is transitive, complete, or linking.

1. The vessel had just set sail.
2. The building had formerly been an old hotel.
3. In the night our ship was struck by an iceberg.
4. The army had attacked our troops in the early morning.
5. We could see only the moon.
6. By noon our party had become very tired.
7. Everybody can remember some events of his childhood.
8. The unfortunate man had been living on South Street.
9. The boy's father had been drowned in the Mississippi River.
10. Never before had this country felt the need of soldiers so keenly.
11. Until this year no one had expected prices to soar so high.
12. Over our lines had passed a number of airplanes.
13. The enemy had been driven back several miles.
14. Our work has advanced rapidly.
15. The old order will give place to the new.
16. The clerk had always been considered honest.

Analysis. Notice carefully the analysis of the following sentences :

1. "To learn is difficult."

This is a declarative sentence. The subject is "To learn" and the complete predicate is "is difficult" of which "is" is the linking verb and "difficult" the predicate adjective.

2. "His delight was to write stories."

This is a declarative sentence. The complete subject is "His delight", of which "delight" is the subject substantive. The complete predicate is "was to write stories", of which "was" is the

linking verb and "to write stories" the infinitive used as a predicate noun. "Stories" is the object of the infinitive "to write."

3. "Running fast is good exercise."

This is a declarative sentence. The complete subject is "Running fast", of which the subject substantive is "running" and "fast" an adverbial modifier. The complete predicate is "is good exercise", of which "is" is the linking verb and "exercise" the predicate noun.

4. "Keeping to the rear, we managed to escape."

This is a declarative sentence. The complete subject is "Keeping to the rear, we", of which "we" is the subjective substantive and "Keeping to the rear" a participial phrase belonging to the subject "we." The complete predicate is "managed to escape", of which "managed" is the predicate verb and "to escape" an infinitive used as the object.

5. "Henry saw the man falling."

This is a declarative sentence. The subject is "Henry." The complete predicate is "saw the man falling", of which "saw" is the predicate verb and "man" the object. "Falling" is a participle belonging to "man."

Exercise 3

Analyze the following sentences :

1. To love one's country is to be patriotic.
2. The new teacher knew how to do his work.
3. We like to ride fine horses.
4. The house having burned to the ground, I returned.

5. Studying French was his delight.
6. The time for marching rapidly had now come.
7. Houses to sell could not be found anywhere.
8. The letter written yesterday has been mailed.
9. How can a man forget to do his duty?
10. We believed him to be innocent.
11. The captain ordered his men to march. (The infinitive and its subject are the object of the verb.)
12. Time to come is called the future.
13. The child, having cut its hand, came **running** to its mother. (The word "running" modifies "child.")
14. What has been done to help him?
15. An opportunity for doing good has at last appeared.
16. The door being open, the child entered.
17. My friend did not want to leave me.
18. Running to the bell, the child began to pull the rope.
19. To live for others was his intention.
20. How did he intend to do the work?

Punctuation. Participial expressions that are added to nouns or pronouns loosely, or to present an additional idea, are set off by commas.

1. John, *hoping that he would succeed*, entered the contest.
2. *Impressed by the sermon*, many men united with the church.
3. *Marching to the beat of the drum*, the soldiers entered the enemy's territory.

Participial expressions that modify a noun or pronoun closely should not be separated by a comma. Usually such participles could not be omitted without changing the meaning of the sentence.

1. The child *kept in school* is my cousin.
2. The man *walking down the street* is our mayor.
3. The building *damaged by fire* is the Orphans' Home.

Participles standing in the predicate are not set off by a comma.

1. The officer found the child *lying in an automobile*.
2. We saw the clown *acting*.

The absolute phrase is set off by a comma.

1. *The officer having been recalled*, the people elected another man.
2. *A false report being circulated*, we felt much discouraged.

Exercise 4

Punctuate the following sentences where it may be necessary :

1. Thinking that the work was done we departed for home.
2. Henry seeing the child fall ran to pick it up.
3. We saw the band playing in the park.
4. The gates being open the crowd pushed into the park.
5. The boy standing on the corner is my brother.
6. Coming down the river I felt all right.
7. The horse kept in the pasture kicked his master.

CHAPTER SIX

I. THE SCHOOL CLUBS

Which of the following clubs does your school have?

A dramatic club	A baseball club
A literary society	A tennis club
A library club	An outdoor club
A science club	An orchestra
A bird club	A stamp club
A star club	A young men's business club
Boy Scouts	
Camp Fire Girls	Junior Red Cross

If your school should have none of these, your class organization will serve the purpose.

You have no doubt discovered that as a member of a club you wish to buy something for your own use or for your society. For example, if you are a member of the baseball club, you will need a ball and glove. If you belong to the science club, you will need materials for your experiments. Indeed, in any club you will find that certain things are needed. You will doubtless need to write a letter ordering some of them.

PROJECT VI. A LETTER ORDERING SOMETHING FOR YOUR CLUB

Talk to the Class. Prepare a talk on the subject: *What I should like to order for use in my club* or *What I think our club should order*. With the class

as a club and the president or another member presiding, state in clear and correct English your thoughts on the subject.

Planning the Work. Doubtless you will find that such letters as the following will be suggested :

- A letter asking for a catalogue
- A letter ordering a soccer ball
- A letter ordering a bicycle
- A letter ordering a kodak
- A letter subscribing for a stamp collector's paper
- A letter ordering Boy-Scout goods
- A letter ordering electrical supplies for a radio outfit

Before you can write a letter ordering goods, you must find out something about how a business letter should be written. Secure samples of business letters from your parents or business houses and make up a style-book. Of course, only letters that are correct in form should finally be placed in your collection. Study carefully the parts — how each is written and where placed. You will discover that every letter consists of six parts — the heading, address, salutation, body, complimentary close, and signature. Notice the position and arrangement of each part in the following letter :

5938 Kingsbury Avenue,
St. Louis, Missouri,
May 3, 1923.

Cullom & Boren Co.,
1101 Elm Street,
Dallas, Texas.

Gentlemen :

Please send me Catalogue No. 21 of your spring and summer sporting goods.

Yours truly,
Frank Hanson

The *heading* tells where and when the letter was written. Find the heading in the foregoing letter. It should be placed about two inches from the top of the page in the upper right-hand corner. It consists of three lines, each beginning to the right of the one above. If the writer lives in a small place where there is no city delivery of the mail, he will not include any street address. The date should always occupy the last line of the heading and should be written by itself. As you can see from the headings given above, no abbreviations are used. This is considered the best usage, but the longer names of the months and states may be abbreviated. Remember that the names of our territories and colonial possessions and *Utah*, *Iowa*, and *Ohio* should be written in full. The words *May*, *June*, and *July* should not be abbreviated. Follow every abbreviation with a period — for example, *Minn.* for *Minnesota*, *Colo.* for *Colorado*. Notice that a comma is used at the end of each line except the last, which is followed by a period. A comma is also used between the items on the same line. Good usage also approves of the omission of the punctuation at the end of each line.

The heading is often printed at the top of the page and is then called a *letterhead*. The following will serve as an illustration :

Little, Brown & Company
34 Beacon Street
Boston

It sometimes happens that the name of the street is a number — as, Fourth Street, Fifth Street. In this case you may be puzzled to know how to write

it. When the house number would stand next to the name, always write the name of the street. Write 150 Fifth Avenue, not 150 5th Avenue. It is a safe rule always to spell the name of the street, but when the number would require two words most authorities advise that figures be used — as, *S. 23d Street, W. 31st Street.*

The *address* tells to whom the letter is sent. Find the address in the foregoing letter. What does it include? You will observe that the first line of the address begins at the left-hand margin and about one-fourth of an inch below the last line of the heading. Each succeeding line begins one-half inch to the right. End punctuation is generally used, although many prefer to omit it. When the city and state are written on the same line, they are separated by a comma. Abbreviations, of course, must always be followed by a period. Always write the name of the person or firm addressed just as that person or firm writes it. Use the following terms of respect: *Mr.*, *Mrs.*, and *Miss* before the names of persons, and *Messrs.* before a firm or board composed of gentlemen. *Messrs.* is not being used now very generally. *Miss* is not an abbreviation and so is not followed by a period. Other terms of respect, and titles, may be used according as we wish to be more particular. *Dr.* should be used before the name of a physician and *Reverend* before the name of a clergyman. If you are writing to a governor, representative, senator, judge, or other public official, you may use the word *Honorable* or the abbreviation *Hon.* before the name. It is permissible in addressing a clergyman to use two titles — as, *The Reverend Mr. Bunting*; but in all other

cases only one should be used. In addressing a firm composed of women, use *Mesdames* or *Ladies*; and in addressing the wife of a professor, doctor, clergyman, or other persons having titles, do not use her husband's title. Write *Mrs. Jonathan Walker*, not *Mrs. Dr. Walker*.

Persons using a typewriter often bring each item of the heading and address to a vertical line for convenience — thus :

Mr. Henry Blair,
610 Franklin St.,
St. Louis, Missouri.

The *salutation* is the greeting. The forms that are generally used in business correspondence are the following: *Dear Sir*, *Dear Madam*, *Gentlemen*, and *Ladies*. In personal letters, the name of the person is often used — as, *Dear John*, *Dear Doctor Cross*, *Dear Uncle Robert*, and the like. The word *Sir* is rarely used alone, being evidently too formal. *Gentlemen* is gaining in usage in the case of greeting the members of a board, committee, firm, corporation, and the like. Do not use *Messrs.* in the salutation for *Gentlemen*, or *Mesdames* for *Ladies*. The salutation is now generally followed by a colon.

The *body* of the letter contains the message.

A business letter should be written on white commercial paper, which is about $8\frac{1}{2}$ by 11 inches in size and unruled. A margin of one inch should be allowed on the left-hand side and the writing should not crowd the right-hand edge. The first line of each paragraph should begin one-half inch to the right of the margin line. Your attention has been

called to the commercial paper commonly used. In addition to this, small commercial paper, about 8 by $5\frac{1}{2}$ in size, may be used. This is appropriate for short letters. Also small four-page sheets, called *note paper*, may be used in business correspondence, but it is much more frequently used in social correspondence. If flat sheets of paper are used, write only on one side. The body should close with a complete sentence.

The *complimentary* close consists of such expressions as *Yours truly*, *Yours very truly*, *Very truly yours*, etc. *Yours respectfully* and *Respectfully yours* are now generally used in letters to superiors only. Occasionally *Sincerely yours* is used to indicate slight friendship. In the case of friendly letters the number of forms is varied to indicate different relationships — as, *Lovingly*, *Cordially*, *Cordially yours*, *Sincerely yours*, *Sincerely your friend*, etc.

Do not connect the complimentary close with the body of the letter — thus :

Thanking you, I remain
Yours truly,
John Brant

It is better to close the body of the letter with a completed sentence. Only the first word of the complimentary close begins with a capital, and the whole expression is followed by a comma.

In business correspondence the *signature* of the writer should be his official signature; that is, the same that he uses in signing checks and papers. In social letters, when people are well known to

each other, only the given name need be written. In every case, the signature should be neatly and carefully written.

The *envelope* address is of course the same as the inside address. The following form has been recommended by the Government Postal Department:

Cullom & Boren Company,
1101 Elm Street,
Dallas,
Texas.

The first line should begin near the middle of the envelope and have an equal amount of space on its left and right sides. Each line should begin a little to the right of the next one above. Most business houses use end punctuation. All abbreviations should be followed by a period.

If commercial paper is used for the letter, commercial envelopes should be selected for mailing. The commercial envelope is about $6\frac{1}{2}$ by $3\frac{1}{2}$ inches in size. If note paper is used, envelopes also of the same kind of paper and size should be secured. In folding commercial paper of the full size, raise the bottom of the sheet and fold it over making a crease about an inch below the middle. Turn the sheet and fold again making a crease at about one-third of the distance. Then fold down from the other side, creasing at about one-fourth the distance. Thus folded the letter should fit the commercial envelope. Fold note paper once, creasing in the middle, and place it in the envelope with the crease down.

The following letter shows the correct form of a letter ordering goods :

5938 Kingsbury Avenue,
St. Louis, Missouri,
May 5, 1921.

Cullom & Boren Co.,
1101 Elm Street,
Dallas, Texas.

Gentlemen :

You will find inclosed six dollars and fifty cents (\$6.50) for which please send me by Parcel Post the following goods :

1 No. 12 X Catcher's Mitt
1 doz. No. 29 Junior League Baseballs

Yours truly,
Frank Hanson

Writing a Letter. Prepare a pencil copy of your letter ordering something for your club. After your teacher has examined it, rewrite it with pen and ink and place it in the envelope. Be especially careful to write the envelope address legibly.

II. MOOD AND TENSE

Mood. You will now consider how assertions are made.

1. Asia is the largest of the continents.
2. If Jackson were living, he would be a stern patriot.
3. May our country always be right.
4. Bring me the book.

In the first sentence the speaker states a fact, in the second a condition contrary to fact, in the third a wish, and in the fourth a command.

The *indicative mood* is the manner of assertion which shows that the speaker regards the assertion as a fact.

1. Garfield *was assassinated* by Guiteau.
2. How long *did* you *work*?

The *subjunctive mood* is the manner of assertion which shows that the speaker regards the assertion as only thought of or as a mere condition of mind. At present this mood is used to express a condition contrary to fact, a wish, or volition in the third person.

1. If I *were* you, I *would stay*. (Condition contrary to fact.)
2. Long *may* our flag *wave* over the land of the free. (Wish.)
3. I urge that the senate *investigate* the matter. (Volition.)
4. I move that Gerald *be appointed* chairman. (Volition.)

The *imperative mood* is the manner of assertion that is used in making commands.

Exercise 1

Tell the mood of each verb :

1. The electrician installed a new moving-picture machine.
2. I wish that you would stay a year.
3. If I were governor, I would veto the measure.
4. Were all men wealthy, it would be unfortunate.
5. What has the food administration done for the people?
6. We read the story in the journal.
7. Had he done his duty, the accident would not have happened.
8. Bring your books to the desk.
9. Stand your ground like men.
10. No man could foresee the result of the great conflict.
11. Would that we could end all war !
12. If he *is telling* this story, he is not my friend. (Assertion is regarded as a fact.)

13. If he were telling this story, he would be false to himself.
14. Mr. Taft was President of the League to Enforce Peace.
15. I have asked a trustworthy foreman to examine each piece of furniture.

Tense. You have observed that a verb may have several forms. Some of these forms indicate the kind of assertion, but others show time.

1. The boy *sings* a song.
2. The boy *sang* a song.
3. The boy *will sing* a song.

Sings denotes present time, *sang* past time, and *will sing* future time. In these cases the terms *present tense*, *past tense*, and *future tense* should be used. The verb really has but two forms to denote time, or tense — namely, present and past. The future tense is a verb phrase made up of *shall* or *will* and the infinitive of a verb. This tense is illustrated by such forms as *shall write*, *will write*, *shall go*, *will go*, *shall strike*, *will strike*.

The Perfect Tenses. The action of the verb may be represented as completed at the present time, at a given past time, or at some future time.

1. Henry *has sung* a song.
2. Henry *had sung* a song.
3. Henry *will have sung* before the meeting closes.

A verb phrase that represents the action as completed at the present time is in the *present perfect tense*. See sentence numbered 1, above.

A verb phrase that represents the action as completed at some definite past time is in the *past perfect tense*. See the sentence numbered 2, above.

A verb phrase that represents the action as completed at some future time is in the *future perfect tense*. See the sentence numbered 3, above.

In the imperative mood there is but one tense — the *present*.

Sing (you or ye).

In the subjunctive mood, a verb may be in the present or past tenses or in the present perfect or past perfect tenses.

Exercise 2

State the mood and tense of each verb in the following sentences. Is each verb in the active or in the passive voice?

1. We stopped at a little town in the Ozark Mountains.
2. Had the road been smooth, our ride would have been pleasant.
3. Leave your wraps in this room.
4. I found thirty-five arrow-heads the next day.
5. Borrow a torch from your neighbor.
6. The dog took hold of my slipper and pulled on it.
7. If I were only a giant, I would stand against this mob.
8. One warm spring day I received an invitation to go swimming.
9. To-morrow we shall hear Mr. Taft speak.
10. We have been disappointed by the weather.
11. On the tenth of this month my brother will have been in camp sixty days.
12. Our light was furnished by old-time torches.
13. The automobile had been struck by a fast passenger train.
14. If he had insisted, I would have gone.
15. A little girl came running to us with a collection of dolls.
16. We had just thanked the Japanese lady for her kindness.
17. The Camp Fire Girls had spent a pleasant afternoon at the river.
18. All of the pupils have had good advantages.
19. The government will try to provide for its soldiers.
20. The boy did not know any more about sailing than I.
21. A silver loving-cup will be given to the winner of the race.

22. I recommend that the chairman appoint an election committee.
 23. The boys started off together but neither could win.
 24. I really could never forget my first day in school.
 25. The glass was broken by a bullet from the soldier's gun.

How to Spell Difficult Verb Forms. Special study should be given to the spelling of the past tense, the present participle, and the past participle of regular verbs ending in a single consonant preceded by a single vowel. If they are monosyllables or are accented on the last syllable, the final consonant is doubled.

1

bat	batted	batting
drag	dragged	dragging
grip	gripped	gripping
hop	hopped	hopping
jot	jotted	jotting
map	mapped	mapping
nod	nodded	nodding
plan	planned	planning
sin	sinned	sinning
slam	slammed	slamming
slap	slapped	slapping
strip	stripped	stripping
strut	strutted	strutting

2

compel	compelled	compelling
control	controlled	controlling
debar	debarred	debarring
defer	deferred	deferring
omit	omitted	omitting
prefer	preferred	preferring
refer	referred	referring

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Special attention should also be given to the spelling of the third person singular, present tense and past tense, of verbs ending in *y*.

1. If *y* is preceded by a consonant, change *y* to *i* and add *es*.

cry	cries	cried
dry	dries	dried
fly	flies	flew
hurry	hurries	hurried
study	studies	studied
try	tries	tried

2. If *y* is preceded by a vowel, add *s* to form the present and *ed* to form the past.

delay	delays	delayed
play	plays	played
pray	prays	prayed
stay	stays	stayed

3. The following vary from the rule :

lay	lays	laid
pay	pays	paid
say	says	said

CHAPTER SEVEN

I. THE SCHOOL CLUBS (*Continued*)

You are no doubt intensely interested in the work of your club. Why was it organized? For what does it stand? What is it doing?

You will find many occasions to speak and write about it. For example, you will probably want to hold a membership drive. Perhaps a still better project would be A “*Boost Your Club*” Campaign.

PROJECT VII. A “BOOST YOUR CLUB” CAMPAIGN

Talk to the Class. Prepare a two-minute speech explaining what your club stands for and telling why you joined it. If possible, choose a motto for it and word it in good English.

Preparing a Poster or Advertisement. Make a poster with a drawing and several interesting statements about your club. Write only the facts you would like to have others remember.

Preparing to Write a Letter. Our project will furnish many occasions for social letters — that is, friendly letters, informal notes, and formal notes. For example, you may write to a pupil in another class telling him what your club is doing and perhaps urging him to join, or you may write to a pupil in the junior high school of some other city, telling him about your club and asking about his. Again,

you may write an informal note inviting some one to attend an affair to be given by your club, or issue a formal invitation. Before you begin to prepare your letter, read carefully the following discussion :

The parts of the friendly letter are, of course, the same as those of the business letter, but there are some modifications. For example, the street address may be omitted from the heading, particularly if the person to whom you write is well known to you.

It is not necessary to write the inside address of the person to whom you are writing. This may appear only on the envelope. In case the letter is addressed to a stranger, and does not contain matters of business, the inside address should be written at the close, beginning at the left-hand margin and one line below the signature.

The salutation may be any of a great number of forms, depending on the degree of intimacy between the writer and his correspondent. The following are at least suggestive of good usage: *Dear Frank*, *My dear Frank*, *Dear Father*, *Dear Sister*, *Dear Mr. Wells*, and the like. The word *dear* is not capitalized unless it is the first word. Many authors say that all nouns in the salutation should be capitalized. Follow the salutation with a colon or a comma.

The body of the letter should always carry an interesting message of friendship. It should be written in the conversational style, but should never be carelessly written. Write as you talk, bearing in mind the fact that your friends will be interested in details and the news of their acquaintances. Do not begin your letter with excuses or apologies. The

effect of this is to weaken the entire letter. It is much better to omit apologies altogether. It is not courteous to begin with such sentences as the following: *As I have nothing else to do, I shall try to answer your letter.* You should make your friend feel that it is a pleasure to write to him. Do not omit the subject pronouns in your sentences as you would in telegrams, thus: *Received your letter and shall answer to-day.* In closing your letter do not use such worn-out expressions as *Hoping to hear from you soon, I remain,* etc. It is much better to close with a complete sentence.

The complimentary close is generally informal. The following are forms often used: *Yours sincerely, Sincerely yours, Lovingly, Affectionately, Cordially, Cordially yours, Your sister,* and the like.

The signature need not include the full name of the writer, but should be written neatly. It should be placed below the complimentary close and begin a little to the right.

The following shows the correct form and style of the friendly letter :

Peoria, Illinois,
January 2, 1923.

Dear Esther :

I was simply delighted with your last letter. It contained so much interesting news. I have read it over two or three times. However, I was sorry to hear that Ella was sick. I hope she will be able to come to our club party next week.

I must tell you about my Christmas presents. I received a towel somewhat like the one you gave me. I also received a gold ring and a new set of furs.

I wanted to make you something this Christmas, and I have the same old excuse—busy. But I am going to send you a remembrance, even if I couldn't make it myself. You may look for it some time next week.

You can't imagine how proud I'll be to get the plate you are painting for me. Margaret also likes painting, but says it does not fit into the course she is taking.

I believe all the neighbors are well. I see them passing occasionally and all look well and happy.

Well, Catherine says the Sand Man is coming and she wants to go to bed. My eyes also are getting heavy; so I shall not write more this time. I am expecting a long letter from you very soon.

Lovingly,
Helen.

An *informal note* is a short friendly letter. The inside address is omitted and the other parts are like those of the ordinary friendly letter. As to the body of the note, it includes invitations and replies, notes accompanying gifts, requests for favors, apologies, announcements, congratulations, and condolences.

The following invitation shows the correct form and style of the informal note:

5100 Maple Avenue,
December 10, 1922.

Dear James,

Father has gone to Jefferson City to-day to spend a week. I am alone and have nothing to do. Come over and we will go fishing. Be sure to bring your hook and line.

Sincerely yours,
John.

The *formal note* is written in the third person and in very formal language. The answer should also be of the same form and style. In some cases, however, no reply is required — for example, invitations to public weddings and public receptions.

The following show how the formal note should be written :

Miss Bessie Horn
requests the pleasure of
Miss Agnes Tovey's company at a party
to be given by the Camp Fire Girls in Room 320,
Tuesday afternoon, November the fourth,
at four o'clock.

October thirtieth

Miss Agnes Tovey accepts with pleasure Miss Bessie Horn's kind invitation to attend a party to be given in Room 320, Tuesday afternoon, November the fourth, at four o'clock.

November second

The stationery of the formal letter differs somewhat from that of ordinary correspondence. Correspondence cards with envelopes of the size to match are coming to be used quite generally for this purpose. Plain white, cream, or French gray are considered best. It is well to avoid highly tinted paper. Invitations of clubs and societies are often printed.

Important as correct form may be, by far the most important thing is to be able to make your letters interesting. In general, you should write your own thoughts and feelings in your own way. Of course, you must take care to make every statement clear. If you are at home, remember that common everyday bits of news — what you are doing, seeing, reading — will always please. If your club is giving a program, doing something for the school, or conducting an advertising campaign, your friends will be interested in the details. If you are taking a trip to the lake, the park, or else-

where, make them feel that they are present and enjoying the delightful experiences.

In order that you may see just how a friendly letter should be written, your attention is directed to the following selection from Louisa Alcott's Diary.¹ Notice how natural and informal, yet how charming, her language is. Read it through several times and try to make her style your own :

"I rose at five and had my bath. I love cold water! Then we had our singing-lesson with Mr. Lane. After breakfast I washed dishes, and ran on the hill till nine, and had some thoughts, — it was so beautiful up there. Did my lessons — wrote and spelt and did sums; and Mr. Lane read a story, 'The Judicious Father': How a rich girl told a poor girl not to look over the fence at the flowers, and was cross to her because she was unhappy. The father heard her do it and made the girls change clothes. The poor one was glad to do it, and he told her to keep them. But the rich one was very sad; for she had to wear the old ones a week, and after that she was good to shabby girls. I like it very much, and I shall be kind to poor people.

"Father asked us what was God's noblest work. Anna said *men*, but I said *babies*. Men are often bad; babies never are. We had a long talk, and I felt better after it, and *cleared up*.

"We had bread and fruit for dinner. I read and walked and played till supper-time. We sang in the evening. As I went to bed the moon came up very brightly and looked at me. I felt sad because I have been cross to-day, and did not mind Mother. I cried, and then I felt better, and said that piece from Mrs. Sigourney, 'I must not tease my mother.' I get to sleep saying poetry, — I know a great deal." — *Louisa May Alcott*.

Writing a Letter. Write a letter to a friend in an English class other than your own, telling him all about your club. Tell him the purpose of the club, and the interesting things that the society is doing.

¹Published by Little, Brown, and Company.

A Class Debate. Prepare a two-minute talk on the question, *Resolved, that once a week a period shall be set apart on the regular program for a meeting of the clubs.* If you speak for the resolution, you are said to be on the *affirmative* side. If you speak against it, you are said to be on the *negative* side. The chairman will first call on an affirmative speaker and then a negative speaker, and so on until all have spoken. At the close, the class should vote to determine which side wins the debate.

Writing a Letter. Write to a class in the junior high school of some other city telling about your club and your school. Inquire about similar organizations in their school. Try to imitate the style of Miss Alcott as given in the foregoing letter.

Writing an Informal Invitation. Write an informal invitation to a friend to attend a program to be given by your club, to go on a trip with you, or to be present at a party.

II. MODIFIERS

Adjectives and Adverbs. You have already learned that a sentence must consist of a substantive and a verb. You are now to learn that certain words, called modifiers, belong to the substantive and the verb. Read carefully the following sentences :

1. *Dishonest* men *often* succeed.
2. The child seemed *very* happy.
3. The speaker spoke *more distinctly* to-day.

In the first sentence the subject substantive is *men* and the predicate verb is *succeed*. What word belongs to *men* and tells something about men?

What word belongs to *succeed* and tells something about it? The word *dishonest* belongs to *men* and is said to modify the word. It is called an adjective. The word *often* belongs to *succeed* and is called an adverb. In the second sentence *very* modifies the adjective *happy*, and in the third *more* modifies the adverb *distinctly*. *Very* and *more* are classed as adverbs.

A word that modifies a substantive is *an adjective*.

A word that modifies a verb, an adjective, or another adverb is *an adverb*.

A noun or pronoun may be modified by several adjectives.

1. The *old* year has passed.
2. The *good old* year has passed.
3. *His dear old* father has just died.

You will observe that the adjectives are not equal in rank. They do not do the same work and hence are not coördinate. In the second sentence *the* modifies the whole expression *good old year*, and *good* modifies *old year*. Each adjective seems to modify what follows. *Adjectives so used should not be separated by a comma.*

Sometimes the adjectives take the form of a series, the members being equal, or coördinate, in use. They should then be separated by the comma.

1. The *gentle, just, and merciful* judge pronounced the sentence.
2. Peru may be likened to a *tall, irregular, graystone* house.

Adverbs, too, may be used in a series coördinate in use. They should then be separated by the comma.

Slowly, sadly, and hopelessly the slave attended to his tasks.

How Adjectives Are Named. Adjectives are named according to their position in the sentence. An adjective that stands before the noun and modifies it directly is an *adherent adjective*.

My *white* horse tripped over the rolling boulders.

An adjective that follows a noun and is loosely attached to it is an *appositive adjective*. The *appositive adjective* should be separated by commas.

1. The traveler, *happy and hopeful*, set out for the lowlands.
2. Our prospect, *bright in every respect*, was pleasing.

Your attention has already been called to the fact that an adjective used in the predicate with a linking verb is called a *predicate adjective*. A predicate adjective belongs to the subject.

1. The tree is *tall*.
2. The children seem *happy*.

Exercise 1

Select the modifiers in the following sentences and state whether each is an adjective or an adverb. Note the punctuation of each sentence.

1. Mary and Elizabeth live in the beautiful white stone house.
2. Here were many dainty little flowers.
3. Little Mary often felt sick.
4. A great fire broke out suddenly.
5. We watched the soldiers attentively.
6. The mouth is almost never in a state of true cleanliness.
7. One child sick with a cold can infect a whole class.
8. Our wise ancestors had very good health.
9. The little newsboy had a pale face and dull sunken eyes.
10. Test each eye separately.
11. It was a very cold dreary day in December.
12. The old man at the window did not move.

13. How old are the relics?
14. Our pupils loyally supported their team.
15. The rider carelessly, roughly, and unfeelingly rode over the
child's body.

CHAPTER EIGHT

I. A HEALTH CAMPAIGN

Read carefully the following selection from the United States Public Health Reports :

"The health of the community should be of interest to every individual, for upon it depends the welfare of himself, of his family, and of his fellow citizens. Upon the health of the people depend the happiness and prosperity of the community. Without health there can be no real prosperity, and such material success as may be attained is of little benefit.

"Do what we will, our health depends not only on how we live but also on how the other people of the community live. The danger of infection from the sick and diseased we never see is often greater than that from the sick we do see. We can protect ourselves from those we see and know of, but we are in a large measure helpless to protect ourselves from those of whose existence we are unaware.

"The health department is a department created and supported by the people to look after the community's health, to protect them and their neighbors from exposure to sickness."

You will readily see that good health is of such great importance that the cities and towns have provided departments of health to carry on the work. You and your class should give every assistance possible. Would it not be well to conduct a health campaign of your own for the purpose of getting acquainted with the agencies the community uses for protecting health, arousing boys and girls to the necessity of obeying the rules of good health, and helping to prevent the spread of disease?

PROJECT VIII. CONDUCTING A HEALTH CAMPAIGN

Planning the Work. In order that the class may get acquainted with the agencies which the community uses to advance public health, the president should appoint a number of committees to investigate the following topics and report on them later :

1. The board of health in your city
2. The sewage system
3. Methods of disposing of garbage
4. The water-works system and the water supply
5. The city milk supply
6. How the government waged war against disease in the Panama Canal Zone

The class should also form a health board and organize a department of health with a health commissioner and a number of inspectors and employees. This organization can then assist in promoting better health at school and in the community. The members can prepare short health talks, posters, health creeds, bulletins, etc.

Talk to the Class. Prepare a two-minute talk on one of the following topics :

1. Why the hands, mouth, nose, and ears should be kept clean
2. Fresh air in the schoolroom
3. Ventilation of the sleeping-room
4. Dangerous disease carriers
5. "Swat the fly"

Making a Health Creed. Finish the following creed and make a neat copy in your notebook :

I will keep my face and body clean.

I will eat wholesome food, take plenty of exercise, and sleep eight hours every day.

I will wash my hands thoroughly every time before eating.



Making a Poster. Make a poster similar to the one shown on this page. Choose some important statements to put on it.

Two-minute Talk. Prepare a talk on the subject, *What I can do to prevent the spread of colds?* If you prefer, you may choose some other health topic.

Writing a Letter. Write a letter to the department of health of your city or town asking for any bulletins it may have for free distribution. Address it to the health commissioner. Be careful to use good form and style. The teacher will mail the best letter.

Reports of Committees. In preparing your reports for the class, you should make an outline — thus :

- I. The board of health
 1. How it is chosen
 2. Number of members
 3. Duties
 4. Officers employed by it

The chairman of each committee will address the class and tell the interesting facts his committee has been able to learn by inquiry, by visits to the library, or from bulletins.

Making a Health Bulletin. This is itself an important project, and much care should be taken to make it interesting. When the work is completed, the bulletin should be read to the entire class. In planning the work, the following should be provided for: short health stories, jokes, health rules, discussions of health topics, and cartoons. The health commissioner of the class should ask different persons to head committees to provide each kind of material. When each committee has prepared its articles for the bulletin, all the material should be assembled.

Reports from the Class Department of Health. Each pupil who has been serving as an inspector should report orally to the class concerning what he has been doing for better health in the school. For example, he will tell what he can of the ventilation of the school building, the heating and cleansing of the rooms and halls, etc.

A Debate. Be prepared to speak for or against the following: *Resolved, that athletics is more impor-*

tant than the study of arithmetic. Prepare an outline, or *brief* as it is called, and follow it carefully in speaking. For example, your outline may begin in this way :

I believe that athletics is more important than the study of arithmetic, for —

1. Athletics will help to develop a strong body, and a strong body is necessary to success.
2. One can get along with very little arithmetic.

Finish the outline and make sure that each statement is correct. In order to give emphasis, mention your strongest point last.

Writing a Letter. Write to the Red Cross branch in your city asking it to send you a representative to speak to you on some health topic. If you prefer, write to the Tuberculosis Society making a similar request.

Preparing a Play. Write a play to be given before your class in the concluding program of the health campaign. Work out the following idea or a similar one. Mr. Careless and Mr. Overwork are engaged as partners in business. They work very hard, take no exercise, are careless about ventilating their office, and do not even eat suitable lunches. They become very rich in the course of time, but along comes the villain Tuberculosis (consumption) and lays hold on them. They struggle with the villain, but are almost overcome, when along comes a good-health hero who by his wise counsel and assistance helps to overcome him by helping them to ventilate their office, take exercise, etc.

II. THE PREPOSITIONAL PHRASE

Up to this time you have been considering modifiers as single words. Now you are to learn that a modifier may be a group of words. Observe the following sentences :

1. *Wealthy* men often contribute *generously* to a good cause.
2. An *American* citizen should be protected both at home and abroad.

If the writer or speaker wishes to vary his language, he can make a group of words do the work of *wealthy*, *generously*, or *American*.

1. Men *of wealth* often contribute *with generosity* to a good cause.
2. A citizen *of America* should be protected both at home and abroad.

A group of words that modifies a substantive is called an *adjective phrase*.

A group of words that modifies a verb, verbal, adjective, or adverb is an *adverbial phrase*.

Tell what word each phrase in the following sentences modifies :

1. The people *of Japan* are very industrious.
2. The soldiers retreated *across the bridge*.
3. *For many years* cotton seeds were removed *by hand*.
4. The stories *about Washington* are very interesting.
5. Life *on the sea* is dangerous.
6. A majority *of the people in 1800* were farmers.
7. Greece *with her clear skies and rocky coast* is indeed a lovely land.
8. *In Spain* many *of the people* are uneducated.
9. A reception *for the new minister* was held *in the church parlor*.
10. The boy agreed *with me*.

Observe that each phrase begins with a word that is followed by a substantive. The word that

introduces the phrase is called a *preposition* and the substantive is called the *object of the preposition*. By referring to the phrases in the sentences above, you will notice that prepositions include such words as *of, from, in, on, across, above, over, with*, and the like.

A phrase introduced by a preposition is called a *prepositional phrase*.

The substantive, or object, in the phrase may have its own modifiers, but remember that the whole phrase serves as a single modifier in the sentence.

1. We waded *across the deep pool*.
2. The hunter climbed *to the top of the Mountain*.

In the first sentence *deep* belongs to *pool* and describes it; in the second the noun *top* is modified by the phrase *of the mountain*. When one phrase is thus joined to another, they make up a complex phrase.

Exercise 1

Find the prepositional phrases and tell what each modifies. State whether each is adjectival or adverbial.

Name the preposition and find its object.

1. During the next morning I stayed at his house. (*During* is a preposition.)
2. At last the horse started toward the house.
3. The cave on the bank of the river is called Cliff Cave.
4. Some of the interesting points we could not mention.
5. From the top of a high building we viewed the falls in the river.
6. On the American side there is another elevator which takes you down under the "Maid of the Mist."
7. The falls at Niagara is the most beautiful scene in America.
8. The place is one mass of electric lights.

9. On this sight-seeing car we took a guide to tell us about each place.
10. We took the trolley from Buffalo to Niagara.
11. From the roof of the house we saw the valley for many miles.
12. My grandfather lives in a village in Missouri.
13. We started to his home early in the morning.
14. The man in the blue uniform is the city marshal.
15. Late in the evening we heard the fire engine coming down the street.
16. The call to the colors took many young men from their homes.
17. To our great surprise we saw a fire about two blocks from us.
18. The next morning we found nothing of the house but the kitchen sink.
19. The effort of the mayor could not stop the mob's activity.
20. In the rear of the main building are sunken gardens.
21. Our automobile skidded into a telephone pole and was wrecked by the jolt.
22. Because of the oil the fire spread with great rapidity. (Consider *because of* as a compound preposition.)
23. In the meantime the fire had attracted several thousand people.
24. We started about nine o'clock and went to the dock to meet our friends.

CHAPTER NINE

I. A SAFETY-FIRST CAMPAIGN

STOP! LOOK! LISTEN! These words posted at every railroad crossing have probably saved thousands of lives. Railroad and street-car companies have for years been conducting a safety campaign. This work, however, is no longer confined to them. Many industrial and commercial concerns have adopted the "Safety First" slogan. Public welfare departments also are advancing the work.

"Safety First" should be everyone's slogan, and it will be, when the public is properly educated as to the necessity for the prevention of accidents. The class might profitably conduct a campaign of this kind to discover the causes of accidents and to find out how to prevent them.

PROJECT IX. CONDUCTING A "SAFETY-FIRST" CAMPAIGN

Planning the Work. The class president should appoint committees to investigate the following topics and report on them later:

1. What railway companies are required to do to prevent accidents
2. Traffic regulations of your city or town

3. Building inspectors and their duties
4. Boiler inspectors and their duties
5. Elevators and regulations for running them
6. Where accidents most frequently occur

The class may work individually or as a whole to carry on a campaign for education by making "safety-first" slogans, posters, two-minute talks, bulletins, etc.

Talk to the Class. Prepare a two-minute talk on the subject, *What I can do to prevent accidents*.

Making a Page of Safety Rules. Write several rules for the prevention of accidents. Be careful to state them in good English. If you prefer, you may add to the following:

Keep the garbage-can covered.

Learn to swim and teach others to do so.

In crossing the street look to the left until you reach the center of the street and then look to the right.

Writing a Letter. Write a letter to the Department of Public Welfare of your city or town and ask for any literature it may have on the subject of accident prevention. First state what your class is doing and follow this with the request.

Making "Safety-First" Posters. Use large sheets of paper and with water colors or crayolas make a simple drawing to show an accident about to occur — for example, a child trying to cross the street in front of a speeding automobile. Whatever the design, make suitable slogans or important statements to accompany the drawing.

Two-minute Speeches. Prepare a talk on the subject, *How to have a safe and sane Fourth of July*. Suggest something that will take the place of powder, pistols, rockets, etc.

Making a "Safety-First" Bulletin. The bulletin will probably consist of slogans, little stories of accidents through carelessness, jokes, and explanations of how to prevent accidents. The work may be divided among different committees, or each pupil may be asked to make a bulletin. It will probably be better, however, to have a slogan committee, a story committee, a poster committee, etc. Each committee can then choose carefully the material that should be included. The stories should include such incidents as the following:

1. My most serious accident
2. An automobile accident
3. A narrow escape
4. How I practiced "safety first"
5. An accident in alighting from a street car

Reports of Committees. The president of the class should ask the chairmen of the various committees to report on the subjects that were assigned when the project was first taken up. Important information should be entered in the notebooks.

II. THE CLAUSE

Besides word and phrase modifiers, expressions containing a skeleton — a subject and predicate — may be used.

1. A *wise* man saves his money.
2. A man *of wisdom* saves his money.
3. A man *who is wise* saves his money.

The expression *who is wise* modifies *man* and is used like an adjective. The word *wise* and the phrase and clause in the sentences above are used

in precisely the same way — namely, as adjectival modifiers.

A *clause* is a group of words having a skeleton — a subject substantive and a predicate verb — and performing the work of a single modifier or a substantive.

A clause that modifies a noun or pronoun is an *adjectival clause*.

1. The boy *who works* will succeed.
2. The house *where I was born* is still standing.

A clause that modifies a verb, an adjective, or an adverb, is an *adverbial clause*.

1. Seven Americans fell dead *when the British fired*.
2. As soon as *the British could reach the village*, they opened fire.
(The clause modifies the first *as*, an adverb.)

A clause that is used like a noun as subject, predicate nominative, or object, is called a *substantive clause*.

1. *That he would fail* was certain.
2. The result was *that Wilson was elected*.
3. Roosevelt knew *that the canal would be valuable*.

Exercise 1

Find the subordinate clauses and tell how each is used. To what does each adjectival or adverbial clause belong? What word connects the clause to the word the clause modifies?

1. General Pershing, who was sent to France, is a very brave soldier.
2. The opinion of the manager was that the boy would become a valuable clerk.
3. A farmer reported that a strange man had come to him asking for shelter.

4. The house that stands on the corner is the residence of the mayor.
5. If the weather is fair to-morrow, we shall leave for our homes.
6. The campaign failed because no one would furnish money to finance it.
7. This was the heaviest blow that the allies had yet received.
8. The greatest lesson that has come from the war is an appreciation of real brotherhood.
9. This is the chair in which General Grant sat.
10. The workman whose tools were thrown into the river moved to another city.
11. Then came the time that tried men's souls.
12. Frank Dudley left home when he was but twenty years of age.
13. Our new neighbors say that they like our city.
14. On our way to the station we met several men whom we did not recognize.
15. The old tree still lies where it fell.
16. We climbed into an old launch which had been abandoned.
17. While we were waiting for the train, a stranger came into the station.
18. The big audience which had assembled to hear the bishop's sermon patiently waited for the services to begin.
19. The time which had been counted out on account of the accident delayed the game.
20. I knew that the accident would happen.
21. That I would succeed was believed by all.

Analysis. Notice carefully the analysis of the following sentences, containing phrases and clauses :

1. "The chairman of the meeting told the story of the disaster."

This is a declarative sentence. The complete subject is "The chairman of the meeting", of which "chairman" is the subject substantive and "of the meeting" an adjective phrase modifying "chairman." The complete predicate is "told the story of the disaster", of which "told" is the predicate verb and "story" the object. The adjective phrase "of the disaster" modifies "story."

2. "The chairman, who presided at the meeting, told the story of the disaster."

This is a declarative sentence, containing a clause. The complete subject is "The chairman who presided at the meeting", of which "chairman" is the subject substantive and "who presided at the meeting" an adjective clause modifying "chairman." The complete predicate is "told the story of the disaster", of which "told" is the predicate verb and "story" the object. The adjective phrase "of the disaster" modifies "story."

3. "That he had died was known by all."

This is a declarative sentence, containing a clause used as subject. The subject is "That he had died" and the predicate "was known by all." The predicate verb is "was known", of which the phrase "by all" is an adverbial modifier.

4. "The truth is that he has deserted."

This is a declarative sentence, containing a clause used as a predicate noun. The complete subject is "The truth", of which "truth" is the subject substantive. The complete predicate is "is that he has deserted." The linking verb is "is" and the predicate noun the clause "that he has deserted."

5. "I know that he will do the work."

This is a declarative sentence, containing a clause used as the object. The subject is "I" and the complete predicate "know that he will do the work." The word "know" is the predicate verb, and the object is the clause "that he will do the work."

Exercise 2

Analyze the following sentences :

1. The superintendent, who came to our school for a short visit, took time for a reception.
2. The gentleman whom you met is a foreigner.
3. That he could not succeed was evident.
4. The chairman reported that he had collected the dues from the members of the society.
5. The time when the races should begin had been announced by the judges.
6. No one who knows a good car will buy this one.
7. Washington, whom the people chose for President, commanded the respect of all the people.
8. The man for whom the house was built has just died.
9. The belief that stars are suns is held by some scholars.
(The clause is in apposition with "belief.")
10. The story of his adventure is what the children like.
11. The man that lives near me is my friend.

CHAPTER TEN

I. A READING CLUB

Books are your silent companions. If you learn to love them, you will spend many a happy hour with them.

What books have you read in other grades? Which did you like best? Would you enjoy reading other good stories? If so, you will be interested in forming a reading club for the purpose of getting acquainted with new books and gaining pleasure and knowledge.

PROJECT X. CONDUCTING A READING CLUB

Planning the Work. Although the class is already organized, you will probably find it desirable to form the reading club as a separate society with different officers. You will need to elect a president to conduct the affairs of the club, and a librarian to keep the booklist and to make a record of the books each pupil reads. The club may be divided into groups, if necessary, for the purpose of exchanging books. Committees also may be appointed for such work as may be planned by the club.

As far as possible, the club should work out its own plan. The following suggestion, however, may serve to make the task easier: First, choose a list of the most interesting books in both your

school library and the public library. Second, provide certificates or buttons to be given as a reward to each member of the club who reads three or five books. *Begin the reading of a suitable book at once.*

The following is a suggestive list of books. The club should add many others. Perhaps the president or librarian will write a letter to the public library asking for a list of books which they can recommend for your grade.

Little Women — Alcott
Boy's Life of Edison — Meadowcraft
Uncle Tom's Cabin — Stowe
The Jungle Book — Kipling
Black Beauty — Sewell
George Washington — Scudder
Birds' Christmas Carol — Wiggin
Rebecca of Sunnybrook Farm — Wiggin
Boys' Life of Grant — Nicolay
Robinson Crusoe — Defoe
An Old-Fashioned Girl — Alcott
Daddy Longlegs — Webster
Pollyanna — Porter
Evangeline — Longfellow
Robin Hood — Howard Pyle
Little Lord Fauntleroy — Burnett
Little Men — Alcott
Men of Iron — Pyle
Christmas Carol — Dickens
The Man without a Country — Hale
Wonder Book — Hawthorne
Paul Jones — Seawell
David Copperfield — Dickens
Beautiful Joe — Saunders
Huckleberry Finn — Twain
Swiss Family Robinson — Wyss
Hans Brinker — Dodge
The Story of a Bad Boy — Aldrich
Jo's Boys — Alcott

Eight Cousins — Alcott
 The Oregon Trail — Parkman
 Deeds of Daring Done by Girls — Moore
 Bob, Son of Battle — Ollivant
 Captain January — Richards
 Gulliver's Travels — Swift
 In the Days of Queen Victoria — Tappan
 Biography of a Grizzly — Thompson-Seton
 Polly Oliver's Problem — Wiggin

Talk to the Class. Tell the class the titles of some good books you have read recently. Give the name of the author of each. Which did you like best? Tell the class something in it that interested you.

Writing a Letter. Write a letter to the librarian of the public library asking for a list of interesting books suitable for your grade. Tell him about the formation of your reading club and your plan for working out the project. The best letter should be mailed.

Talk to the Class. With the class as a reading club, and the president or librarian in charge, make a two-minute talk on one of the following:

1. How to find a certain book in the library
2. The proper care of books
3. Making the club acquainted with the rules of the library
4. How to make a book-holder

Notebook Work. The club will now make up its permanent reading list. Each member should suggest some interesting titles. These should be placed on the blackboard, and if approved by the teacher, entered in the notebook.

Talk to the Class. Perhaps you are now ready to report on one of the interesting books in your list. If so, rise and say, "Mr. President, I move that the

Reading Club hear reports on the books that have been read." If this motion is passed, the club will be ready for the work. You should then address the president again, saying, "Mr. President, I should like to give a report on *Black Beauty*, by Sewell." Do not attempt to tell all the details. Merely follow a simple outline such as the following:

1. The title of the book
2. The author's name
3. The chief characters
4. A very brief outline of the story

There are certain striking incidents or situations which you will wish to give because they have impressed you most. Try to tell about them in a way so interesting that your classmates will wish to read the book.

Writing a Letter. Write a letter to a friend who is sick or has left school to work, telling him about some interesting book you are reading.

II. "LIKE" AND "AS IF"

In the following sentences *like* is used correctly:

1. George looks *like* his father.
2. *Like the lion*, the tiger is a savage beast.
3. We saw his giant figure planted *like a tower*.
4. *Like his father*, John is a shrewd business man.

In these sentences *as* and *as if* are used correctly. *Like* would be incorrect:

1. Henry speaks *as if he were angry*.
2. Treat others *as you wish to be treated*.
3. It looks *as if it would rain to-day*.
4. Alice did the work *as she was told to do it*.

If you compare these groups of sentences carefully, you will find that *like* is not used to connect one statement or clause with another. *As if* or *as* should be used in such cases. *Like* introduces a phrase, while *as if* or *as* introduces a clause.

Observe that when a pronoun follows *like* it should be one of the following forms: *me, us, him, her, them,* or *whom*. These sentences illustrate this point:

1. *Like him*, Henry is a graduate of the university.
2. The child looks *like her*.
3. *Like us*, they are in great distress.

The following sentences contain *like* correctly used. Read them several times until you are familiar with the correct use:

1. Charles can climb *like a squirrel*.
2. The man acted *like a spoiled child*.
3. *Like his predecessor*, Mr. Trainor is extremely obliging.
4. The reformer never thinks *like other people*.
5. The people rushed to the depot *like a great wave of the sea*.
6. The events of these days seem *like a dream*.
7. *Like him*, John feared the storm.
8. We do not live *like them*.

The following sentences contain *as if* and *as* used correctly. Study them carefully.

1. The angry man looks *as if he wanted to fight*.
2. I felt *as if I were the poorest man in the world*.
3. The reformer never thinks *as other people do*.
4. The clouds rolled up *as if they were waves of the sea*.
5. The President refused to do *as others had done*.
6. We do not live *as they do*.
7. Mary looks *as if she were going to faint*.
8. George acts *as if he were keenly disappointed*.
9. It looks *as if it would snow*.
10. They did not come *as the conqueror comes*.

Exercise 1

Choose the proper word in each sentence; then compare with those in the special drill.

1. Do (like, as) the teacher told you.
2. Death comes (like, as) a thief in the night.
3. Helen looked (like, as if) she were sick.
4. The tramp acted (like, as if) he were insane.
5. (Like, as) a wild beast, the Emperor fought his enemies.
6. Charles looks (like, as) his father.
7. The pupils laughed and shouted (like, as if) they had heard good news.
8. Arnold acted (like, as if) a traitor.
9. It seems (like, as if) the minister wanted to please his congregation.
10. Lincoln, (like, as) Washington, was a true patriot.
11. His face was red (like, as if) fire.
12. The boys fought (like, as if) tigers.

PART TWO
ENGLISH FOR THE EIGHTH GRADE

CHAPTER ELEVEN

I. THE SCHOOL PAPER

When writing for the school paper or the class magazine, you should keep in mind the reader. You will find it a real pleasure to interest and entertain him. Of course the first thing to do is to select a good subject, preferably one that is familiar to you, but not to him. There are many such, some of which will be mentioned in the following pages. Perhaps you can think of a great many and will be willing to write them on the board for the benefit of other pupils. For example, if you have taken vacation trips you have in mind interesting scenes or objects worth describing; or if you are making something in the shop or laboratory, your school-mates would like to hear about it. Having decided upon an interesting subject, you will next prepare a simple outline, or list, of your details in the order in which you wish to tell them.

If you wish to describe scenes or objects, you must observe them closely and try to remember the essential details. Your problem, of course, is to make others imagine what you yourself have seen. Sometimes it will be sufficient to tell in the simplest way what a thing looks like. This will perhaps be enough in describing interesting things you have made in the workshop. Here you should ask yourself, Is

the impression clear? If so, the work has been well done. There are times, however, when you wish to make others see and enjoy scenes that you have observed. In this case it may be necessary to tell how the thing differs from others, or is like them. This means that you should not set down a mere list of details. It is also essential in many cases to put as much movement into the work as possible. The following is a short description of a scene in which the writer has introduced a good deal of movement, thus making his work somewhat more dramatic :

Seeing the Country from a Car on the Lake Line

Come with me for a ride. A large open car swings rapidly around the corner and pauses barely long enough to pick us up. Now we are off. Hardly have we taken our seats when we fly past a beautiful little village of twenty or thirty houses. Then come gardens, fields, a road, and a brief stop to take on passengers. And what are those groups of houses nestled away on the hills? Oh, nothing but two more villages, Meridian and Vineta, where many clerks, office men, and teachers have come to live. Here is a train hurrying over the concrete bridge above our heads, and now we have passed it by. What fine fields of corn and what pretty cottages here and there !

"Overland," shouts the conductor, as he brings his car to a stop. A freckle-faced lad, with his pockets full of green apples, climbs to a seat, struggling with a basket of potatoes. As the conductor gently helps a country girl to a seat, the car moves on again.

That beautiful building, standing like an old castle on the hill, is the Midland Country Club, and these the wonderful grounds and golf links. The fine old mansion in the distance is the home of a gentleman who got more than his share of wealth in the city and has come to the country to enjoy life. That tall tower before us stands on the hill overlooking Crêve Coeur Lake. Suddenly our car darts into the woods, and now we have reached the end of our journey.

PROJECT XI. HOLDING A WRITERS' CONTEST

Planning the Work. The class may be divided into groups according to the kind of work that is to be done — that is, there may be a group for each of the following :

1. Incidents and descriptions
2. Poems
3. Plays
4. Descriptions of interesting work in other classes

A chairman should be appointed for each group. Every pupil should take part in the contest. When all the contributions are received, they should be read and considered in the group, and the best work should then be submitted to the class for a final decision. The best one or two articles submitted by each group should be sent to the school paper. In case there is no school paper, the class should make a magazine of its own, and these articles should be used for the first issue.

Selecting Suitable Subjects. The following is a list of subjects suitable for descriptions of scenes or objects. Perhaps your class will prefer to make its own list. In this case the best subjects suggested by the pupils should be written on the blackboard :

1. A beautiful school-garden
2. A scene from my study window
3. Looking down a crowded street
4. An interesting building
5. Seeing the city from a boat on the river
6. A Boy Scout's camping outfit
7. A scene in the harvest field
8. A rare coin or coin collection
9. A huge snow fort
10. A coasting scene

11. Something useful I have made
12. Something I have made in the science room
13. My first view of the lake
14. Looking down the mountain

Your classmates will be interested in hearing about the work you are doing in other classes and departments. You are probably doing something that is new to them, something in the laboratory or the shop. Prepare an interesting report on your project.

Every boy and girl enjoys visits to points of interest, trips through factories and shops, and little excursions with the geography or social-studies teacher. Has your teacher taken you to the art museum, the post office, a large factory, or other places of importance? If so, a report of the visit will be interesting to those who could not go. Try to make your account so attractive that the class will vote to have it printed in the school paper.

1. An interesting trip with the science teacher
2. A visit to the "Zoo"
3. A trip through a factory
4. A visit to a large newspaper plant
5. A trip with the Hiking Club
6. A visit to the orphans' home
7. A trip to a point of historical interest
8. A trip with my school club

Talk to the Class. Prepare to give a two-minute talk in which you describe some interesting scene or place you have visited on your vacation trip. Make an outline containing the most important things you wish to say. Arrange the details in the proper order. Think the picture through and, with the foregoing illustration before you, try to put move-

ment into your work. After you have given your talk, let the class tell you whether they got a clear picture of the scene and whether they enjoyed it.

Written English. Select one of the foregoing subjects or a similar one and write an article for your school paper. Introduce as much movement in your description as possible. First write a rough draft and later rewrite it with pen and ink. When you feel that you have done your best, submit it to the chairman of your group.

Talk to the Class. Prepare a talk on an interesting project in science, household arts, or manual training.

1. Connecting a telephone
2. Making a bird book
3. Making an airplane
4. Making a bulletin board for the school
5. Making candy
6. Re-making an old hat
7. Doing "order" work (work for pay)

Writing a Letter. Write a letter to a pupil who is absent on account of sickness, or who has left school, and tell him about an interesting trip you have taken, or of some interesting project your class has undertaken.

Talk to the Class. Prepare a two-minute talk on an interesting trip you have taken to the park, the "Zoo", a newspaper plant, a factory, or other places of interest.

Written English. Write an interesting account of a trip you have taken to some place of interest with your class. Submit it to your group for use in making up material for the school paper.

Class Exercise. When each group has selected the best articles for the paper, these should be read

to the class. Perhaps some valuable corrections will need to be made. The class should finally decide by vote just which articles to submit to the paper.

II. SENTENCES CLASSIFIED AS TO FORM

The Simple Sentence. You have already been taught to classify sentences as *declarative* or *interrogative*, *exclamatory* or *non-exclamatory*. They will now be classified on the basis of their form. Note the form of the following sentences:

1. Columbus wished to find a new route to India.
2. The regiment marched through the principal streets of the city.
3. In every village there were many secret-service men.
4. In the midst of all his disappointments came the news of Arnold's treason.

How many skeletons has each of these sentences? Every sentence must have at least one subject substantive and one predicate verb. Here are the skeletons of the sentences above:

1. Columbus wished
2. regiment marched
3. men were
4. news came

You will observe that there is but one skeleton for each of these sentences. A sentence that has but one skeleton is called a *simple sentence*.

A simple sentence may have a compound subject—that is, two substantives that are coördinate. By coördinate we mean that they have the same use in the sentence.

1. *Webster and Clay* were great orators.
2. *John and he* made an investigation of the matter.

3. The *Governor* of the State and many very prominent *men* came to the celebration.

You will readily see that *Webster* and *Clay* play the same part, both being the subject of *were*. *John* and *he* are the two words that are used alike in the second sentence, and *governor* and *men* in the third. The skeletons of the sentences are as follows :

1. Webster and Clay were
2. John and he made
3. governor and men came

The predicate may be compound. Observe the following sentences :

1. The Siberian Railway *was begun* in 1891 and *completed* in 1905.
2. Henry *drew* water and *made* a fire.

The skeletons of these sentences are as follows :

1. Siberian Railway was begun and completed
2. Henry drew and made

Both subject and predicate may be compound. Here is still but one subject and one predicate, though each is double.

1. *China and Japan raise and export* rice.
2. *Germany, Austria, and Turkey raised and equipped* large armies.
3. *Stock and grain are raised and sold* in Illinois.

It is important that you should not mistake a compound subject or a compound predicate for two skeletons, or predications.

The Compound Sentence. As you have seen, a compound subject or compound predicate may belong to a simple sentence. If, however, you join two or more independent assertions, the case is different. You then have two or more skeletons —

two or more assertions that have the same use. One of these is just as independent as the other, for none depends on any other for its meaning. Read the following sentences and see whether you can determine the different thoughts — the groups of words that go together :

1. The discovery of gold in California attracted the attention of the world, and people flocked to that state in great numbers.
2. Madison was anxious for peace, but the Republican leaders favored war.
3. The people must provide for education, or the nation will become corrupt.
4. We had stepped into the open, for the rain had ceased to fall.
5. The reason for his strange actions no one has ever learned, but all supposed him to be insane.
6. James has not been taught Spanish, neither does he wish such instruction.

The foregoing assertions that are united in the examples above may be separated into independent sentences.

1. The discovery of gold in California attracted the attention of the world. People flocked to that state in great numbers.
2. Madison was anxious for peace. The Republican leaders favored war.
3. The people must provide for education. The nation will become corrupt.
4. We had stepped into the open. The rain had ceased to fall.
5. The reason for his strange actions no one has ever learned. All supposed him to be insane.

A sentence that is formed by uniting two or more independent assertions, or predications, is called a compound sentence.

Conjunctions. You will observe that the members of a compound subject and of a compound predicate

are connected by such words as *and*, *or*, *but*, *both* — *and*, *either* — *or*, *neither* — *nor*. Since these words join coördinate parts, they are called *coördinate conjunctions*. The coördinate conjunctions may connect words, phrases, clauses, or independent assertions — as,

1. *John and Henry.*
2. *in the house and on the street.*
3. *when the train arrived and while the passengers were getting off.*
4. *The clouds began to form, and the wind came up.*

The connectives that are most frequently used to join independent assertions in the compound sentences are the following:

and
but
or

for
nor
neither

Exercise 1

1. Write five simple sentences having compound subjects.
2. Write five simple sentences having compound predicates.
3. Write five simple sentences having both compound subjects and compound predicates.
4. Write six compound sentences having the independent assertions joined by the conjunctions mentioned above.

Punctuation of the Compound Sentence. A period should follow every sentence unless it is interrogative or exclamatory.

An automobile came to the door of the Orphans' Home. The children ran out to see it.

If, however, you wish to join independent predications, using one of the conjunctions mentioned in the foregoing section, you should separate them with the comma.

An automobile came to the door of the Orphans' Home, *and* the children ran out to see it.

Observe the following independent assertions, or predications.

1. The enemy troops were unprepared for the attack. They have been putting every ounce of their strength into an attempt to stem the tide.
2. America did not fail in the war. Her people were united for the great struggle.
3. John has not bought a book. He has not borrowed one.

You may unite the predications by supplying the proper connectives and the comma in each case :

1. The enemy troops were unprepared for the attack, *but* they had been putting every ounce of their strength into an attempt to stem the tide.
2. America did not fail in the war, *for* her people were united for the great struggle.
3. John has not bought a book, *neither* has he borrowed one.

If the connective is omitted, the semicolon should be used instead of the comma.

1. The cover is torn from your book ; you must buy a new one.
2. The enemy troops made gains ; they had heavy reënforcements.

If the members of a compound sentence are long, you may choose between the comma and semicolon.

The painter treated his subject from an ideal standpoint ; and the character of the figure is more Christian than pagan.

Again, if the members are long and themselves contain commas, you may use the semicolon.

The submarine in question was officially registered as *W 309* ; but to the world at large, and especially to the world that goes upon the face of the waters, she was known as *Devil Fish*.

If the second member begins with *so*, use the semi-colon ; if it begins with *and so*, use the comma.

1. The rain was cold ; so we went into the house.
2. We had no books, and so we could not amuse ourselves.

The members of a compound subject or of a compound predicate are not generally separated by the comma unless a conjunction is omitted. It is necessary, then, to determine whether the sentence is really compound or merely has a compound subject or predicate. If you find two independent predications, then use the comma. Note carefully this sentence :

The captain of the regiment and a number of private soldiers went to the city.

Should a comma be placed after *regiment*? If it is the end of an assertion, it should. But this is a simple sentence — only one predication. No comma is therefore needed. This is shown by writing the skeleton — thus :

captain and soldiers went

Again you should not mistake a phrase beginning with *for* for a clause. Such a phrase is not generally set off by a comma.

The chief dispatched a number of policemen for the important work in that part of the city.

No comma is needed here, for the expression beginning with the word *for* is a phrase — not a clause at all.

Exercise 2

Punctuate the following sentences. Perhaps some will not need any punctuation.

1. The teacher would not eat in the lunch room but all the children were glad of it.
2. A franchise confers a privilege but it does so under certain conditions.
3. One of Romney's first patrons was the Duke of Richmond and the income earned at his easel was from three to four thousand pounds a year.
4. The artist crowned her luxuriant coiffure of iron gray with a great black hat and plume and set it off with a ribbon of pearly gray.
5. Our schools must close for the next few days for numerous repairs will be made.
6. The workman would not take money for his services neither would he accept any gifts from us.
7. Many brave men suffered and died for the cause of freedom.
8. Then came a pause in the speaker's address and soon we observed his great embarrassment.
9. I could not remember the stranger's name nor could I inquire of any one.
10. Happily my work was done for the manager had employed another man for the position.
11. The car had passed the building it was too late to get off.
12. You will have to wait outside I have lost my key.
13. We have read many interesting stories but other good ones are left on the list.
14. The boys had no wood with which to make a fire so they had to leave camp.

Analysis. In giving the analysis of a compound sentence, take each member separately. Tell what the connective is, if there is one expressed.

"I could not learn his name, but he was a Spaniard."

This is a compound declarative sentence. The first member is "I could not learn his name", and the second "but he was a Spaniard." The subject of the first member is "I", and the complete predicate "could not learn his name." The predicate verb is "could learn", and the noun "name" is

the object. The subject of the second member is "he", and the complete predicate "was a Spaniard." The word "was" is the linking verb, and "Spaniard" is the predicate noun. The members are connected by the coördinate conjunction "but."

Exercise 3

Analyze the following sentences

1. I was using a side-saddle then, but ever since this experience I have ridden astride.
2. Ferocious dogs were the sentinels of every village, but we found an electric flasher a formidable means of defense.
3. Never have I seen such a steep, slippery trail anywhere else ; it was in the bed of a brook.
4. Behind this chilly house lies nature's loveliest garden ; but no well-built stairway leads down to it.
5. The rest of us did not fancy this bitter beverage, made from corn, so we kept on down the canyon.
6. Pedro failed to appear with the cargo that night, and the next day there was no sign of him.
7. Mr. Adams and I decided to start on alone, for our supplies were running low.
8. Behind the early settlers were the forests, and in front lay the broad Atlantic.
9. Either you must replace the glass, or I will punish you.
10. My husband and I were in search of adventure ; the English naturalist was bound for the forest to collect butterflies.

CHAPTER TWELVE

I. A CIVICS CLUB

Much interesting material for speaking and writing may be found in local and civic matters. Perhaps you already know many important facts about the government of your city and community, some of which you have learned by observation. By talking with your parents and friends, or by reading books, you can learn many more, all of which your classmates will want to know.

You will no doubt wish to form a civics club for the investigation and discussion of local civic matters. Your project will therefore be *Forming a Civics Club*.

PROJECT XII. FORMING A CIVICS CLUB

Planning the Work. The club should elect a president, secretary, and treasurer. The president should then appoint a director of public welfare, or the class may elect one. The director should appoint two committees — a welfare committee and a complaint committee. Recommendations concerning ventilation, safety while on the school grounds, care of school property, cleanliness, etc., should be made to the welfare committee. Complaints of all kinds, such as misconduct, injustice to pupils, smoking, etc., should be made to the complaint committee.

The club will, of course, undertake a careful study of local government. The following is a list of questions which will prove helpful in preparing talks on the different departments. A separate committee should be appointed to study and report on each group of questions.

1. Who has charge of the work of keeping the streets in good repair? What is his salary? How is money raised to carry on this work?
2. You have observed that good order is everywhere maintained. By whom is this work done? Is there a policeman in your neighborhood? What are his duties? How are policemen chosen? Who has charge of the police force? Mention some acts of heroism you have known them to do.
3. Notice that the parks and playgrounds are kept clean and beautiful. Who has charge of this work? What salary does he receive?
4. Do you know the members of the Board of Education in your city or community? What duties do they perform? How can they raise money to build new buildings? Who is at the head of your schools? How is he chosen?
5. Have you ever seen a big fire in which one or more buildings were destroyed? How many firemen did you notice? With what apparatus did they fight the fire? Tell all you can about the Fire Department.
6. What is the source of the water supply in your community? Have you a large water-works system? Who has charge of this work and what are his duties?
7. Good health is so important that we have a department to look after the public interest in this regard — the Department of Health. Who has charge of this work? How does the department help to prevent epidemics of disease?

Talk to the Class. Prepare a two-minute talk on some topic that concerns the welfare of the school — such as, cleanliness of the school ground, care of school property, better provision for safety on the school grounds, etc.

Writing a Letter. Write a letter to the Director of Public Welfare of your city, asking for bulletins on health and safety.

Talk to the Class. Choose sides and debate the following question: *Resolved, that our school should adopt the plan of having student officers.* Prepare an outline, or brief as it is called, similar to the following:

I believe that our school should have student officers, for —

1. The pupils should be trained to become citizens.
2. They should be willing to help their school.
3. It will make the government of the school more democratic.

You should be careful to supply examples or proofs in support of your points.

Written English. Write an interesting paragraph or two in answer to each of the following questions. Read your answers to the class.

1. How does the city raise money to pay its expenses?
2. Who fixes the tax rate?
3. How do parks and playgrounds benefit the public?
4. What is done with the garbage in your community?
5. How does the public protect itself against fire?
6. How much does it cost to run the schools in your city?
7. How are policemen selected?
8. In what ways has the Board of Health benefited your community?
9. Where should playgrounds be located?
10. Tell the story of a brave deed that a fireman has done.

Writing a Letter. Write to the mayor of your city or town, asking for a copy of your city charter and other helpful booklets which the city may have for distribution. Tell him the pamphlets are needed by the school.

Talk to the Class. *Resolved, that the class should have a program consisting of music, addresses on civics topics, and readings.* Discuss the foregoing resolution and state just what topics should be given on the program.

Reports of Committees. The chairmen of the different committees should now be given time to report on the questions assigned to them in the beginning of the project. Perhaps two or three recitation periods will be required for this work. Brief outlines of the main facts should be put in the notebooks.

Writing an Invitation. Write an informal note inviting some officer of your city to address your assembly session on some important civic topic. If you prefer, write and ask some prominent citizen or friend to attend your class program.

II. THE COMPOUND SENTENCE

(Continued)

Mistaking Adverbs for True Connectives. You have already seen that two or more independent assertions may be joined by the true connectives *and, but, for, or, nor, or neither* to form a compound sentence. You have also observed that the assertions may be united without using a connective, in which case the separation between the clauses is made by inserting the semicolon. You are now to learn that there is a certain group of adverbs which seem to connect independent statements just like the true conjunctions mentioned above. This group includes *however, nevertheless, still, then, there, now, indeed, yet, accordingly, consequently, so, moreover,*

and *finally*. The second independent assertion in a compound sentence often begins with one of these words. Now, however much these words look like conjunctions, they really modify, or tell something about, the verb in the second member. You, therefore, punctuate such compound sentences as if they had no connective — by inserting the semicolon. Of course the members could be written as independent sentences and followed by a period. Notice how the following sentences are punctuated :

1. Our trip to the river was not altogether pleasant. However, I did enjoy the exercise.
Our trip to the river was not altogether pleasant; however, I did enjoy the exercise.
2. Andrew could not speak fluently before his class. Nevertheless, he made high grades.
Andrew could not speak fluently before his class; nevertheless, he made high grades.
3. We fished during the morning. Then we went to the show in the afternoon.
We fished during the morning; then we went to the show in the afternoon.
4. The children ran to a neighboring barn. There they found shelter.
The children ran to a neighboring barn; there they found shelter.
5. The early settlers had at first been homesick. Now they were contented.
The early settlers had at first been homesick; now they were contented.
6. The Indians were robbed of their possessions. Indeed they were driven almost out of the land.
The Indians were robbed of their possessions; indeed they were driven almost out of the land.
7. We had planned to take the steamer *Alton*. Accordingly the next morning we got up early and prepared our lunch.
We had planned to take the steamer *Alton*; accordingly the next morning we got up early and prepared our lunch.

8. The applicant did not state his qualifications and experience. Consequently he did not secure the position.
The applicant did not state his qualifications and experience; consequently he did not secure the position.
9. The audience waited many hours for the speaker to come.
Finally a local politician consented to entertain them.
The audience waited many hours for the speaker to come; finally a local politician consented to entertain them.
10. We wished to learn something about the city charter. So our teacher sent us to the city hall to get a copy of it.
We wished to learn something about our city charter; so our teacher sent us to the city hall to get copies of it.
11. The Articles of Confederation did not meet the needs of the individual States. Moreover they did not provide for a single executive.
The Articles of Confederation did not meet the needs of the individual States; moreover they did not provide for a single executive.

If a true connective is used with one of these adverbs, the comma should be inserted instead of the semicolon. Such expressions include *and so*, *and then*, *and accordingly*, *and finally*, *but still*, and the like.

1. We wished to learn something about our city charter, and so our teacher sent us to the city hall.
2. Early in the morning it rained, and then it began to snow about noon.
3. John had telegraphed for me to meet him at St. Joseph, and accordingly we set out early the next day.

Mistaking Adverbial Phrases for True Connectives. Sometimes when two independent assertions are joined, the second begins with an adverbial phrase. These phrases are short and have about the same use in the sentence as the adverbs mentioned above. They are not true connectives; consequently you should not use the comma but the semicolon. The

most common of these phrases are the following: *at least, in fact, of course, at last, after all, for all that, in like manner*, and a few others. Note carefully the punctuation of the following sentences and remember that you may write and punctuate each example in two different ways, both being correct.

1. The candidate will be elected. At least I think he will.
The candidate will be elected; at least I think he will.
2. In almost all our battles with the Mexicans we won. In fact we were successful in all.
In almost all our battles with the Mexicans we won; in fact we were successful in all.
3. Belgium had been gradually weakening. At last it gave up to the enemy.
Belgium had been gradually weakening; at last it gave up to the enemy.
4. The larger states voted for Hughes. After all Wilson was reelected.
The larger states voted for Hughes; after all Wilson was reelected.
5. Our team was stronger and better coached. For all that they were defeated.
Our team was stronger and better coached; for all that they were defeated.
6. Two men tried and failed. In like manner our hero failed.
Two men tried and failed; in like manner our hero failed.

When such adverbs and adverbial phrases modify something loosely or are merely thrown in, or parenthetical, they should be set off by commas — thus:

1. I could not, *however*, agree with him.
2. The pupil was, *in fact*, unprepared.
3. Russia was, *at last*, in the hands of her enemies.

Combining a Series of Short Independent Assertions. A series of short independent assertions may be combined to form a compound sentence. A connective is generally used between the two last clauses.

In this case the comma may be used to separate the clauses, but the rule is simpler if we use the semicolon. Either punctuation, however, is correct.

William joined the debating society, he practiced with the football team, and he was a member of the glee club.

William joined the debating society; he practiced with the football team; and he was a member of the glee club.

Unless there is some connection in thought between the independent clauses, they should not be joined. Above all, you should remember that two thoughts which clearly do not belong together should not be united. Take, for example, this sentence: "John was the best football player on our team, and his father was a minister." Why should these assertions not be joined? Clearly there is no relation between them. Therefore, good usage would separate them entirely or subordinate one member. The problem may be solved as follows:

John was the best football player on our team. His father was a minister.

John, whose father was a minister, was the best football player on our team.

Exercise 1

In the following sentences insert commas and semicolons wherever needed:

1. The bird fluttered along the ground and one of its wings hung down as if it were broken.
2. We had many pleasant days in Alton however we wished that we could be back in old St. Louis.
3. We went on through the woods but found no more nests.
4. We found no more nests so we had a drink from a little stream near by and then started for home.

5. You must become an indispensable employee or your employer will discharge you.
6. The sheriff and the jurors entered then the judge ordered the trial to begin.
7. The clerk opened court and then the judge asked our teacher several questions.
8. We should have enjoyed going to the park alone but the pleasure was increased by the presence of a jolly picnic party.
9. You must leave my house you are a thief.
10. Uncle Art is a Mason he holds a membership in a church club and he belongs to a scholarship fraternity.
11. From there we could see the shore of the Illinois River at last we had come to the end of our journey.
12. The water came tumbling down the rocks at a great speed nevertheless we waded into the stream for several feet.
13. It rained to-day we did not go to school.
14. We entered the cave and built a fire then we cooked lunch.
15. The mouth of the cave was larger and in some places very irregular in shape.
16. The manager was however extremely hard to please.
17. Ruth's father had not yet come down to breakfast and of course knew nothing of the accident.
18. Having taken our trunks to the station we could not return to our rooms neither could we leave for the hotel.
19. The man worked for several minutes to start the boat finally he succeeded.
20. Holmes and Juxley were sincere in their doubts as to the value of the study of mathematics but these have been ably answered by Sylvester.
21. Bricks cannot be made without straw nor can mental growth be achieved without individual effort.
22. The study of mathematics will therefore draw out the individual power.
23. Our skyscrapers must disappear our great bridges and tunnels must be removed our banking systems must suffer greatly indeed our whole civilization must step back many centuries.
24. English is indeed the most practical of all subjects of study.

How to Punctuate Sentences Containing *Yes* and *No*. The words *yes* and *no* in replies are generally equivalent to clauses. You may, therefore, use the semicolon to separate them from the rest of the sentence — thus :

1. *Yes*; algebra has been of very great benefit to me.
2. *No*; I cannot see what that has to do with this case.

But some very prominent editors and scholars use the period after these words, especially if there seems to be a great degree of separation — thus :

1. *Yes.* Who on earth can think otherwise?
2. *No.* You may proceed.

Again, many writers separate them from the rest of the sentence by commas. In most cases, then, the writer may use any one of the three.

1. *Yes.* It gives one the ability to solve problems.
2. *Yes*; it gives one the ability to solve problems.
3. *Yes,* it gives one the ability to solve problems.

Sometimes it seems to give greater emphasis to follow *yes* and *no* with the period.

Exercise 2

Punctuate the following sentences :

1. Can you read French *yes* I can read it.
2. No you cannot go.
3. Mary said *Yes* but Helen said *No*.
4. *Yes* I disliked science.
5. No there is nothing I would rather do.
6. Do you consider him an honest lawyer *yes* I think he is.
7. Do you think algebra and geometry should be retained in our schools *yes* because they have given me good mental training.

CHAPTER THIRTEEN

I. A "KNOW YOUR STATE" CAMPAIGN

When preparing for Missouri's Centennial Celebration, some one said: "My State is a grand old State, a beautiful State, and an instructive State." This could be said with equal truth of every State in the Union. These words will mean more to you, however, when you learn the history of your own.

Can you answer the following questions: When were the first settlements made in your State? Where? What can you say of the struggles of the early settlers? When did your State enter the Union? Who was the first governor?

No doubt you will find that you cannot answer all of these questions. Would it not, therefore, be well to study the history of your State? Some one will offer the following motion: *Resolved, that we conduct a "know your State" campaign.*

PROJECT XIII. CONDUCTING A "KNOW YOUR STATE" CAMPAIGN

Planning the Work. The president should divide the class into six committees, each of which will investigate and report on one of these topics:

1. Chief historical events
 - (1) Early settlers
 - (2) First cities founded

- (3) Date of admission
- (4) Leading historical events
2. Notable men and women whose achievements have added luster to the commonwealth — teachers, statesmen, musicians, writers, artists, inventors, business men, and soldiers
3. Commercial and industrial advantages
4. State institutions — hospitals, reform schools, universities, etc.
5. Historical buildings
6. State parks, wonderful natural scenery, etc.

As far as possible, your class should plan the work, but the following suggestions will be found helpful: Provide a historical program and invite another class to attend. Write a letter asking an old settler to be present and address your class. Plan also to dramatize interesting historical scenes and to present one or more tableaux.

The various committees should begin their investigations at once. Much help can be obtained from histories of your State, and these should be found in your public library.

Talk to the Class. Bring to the class kodak pictures of historical scenes, historical buildings, the capitol buildings, etc. These may be clipped from newspapers and magazines. Tell the class some interesting facts about each. Better still, if you have visited some of these places, describe them so vividly that your classmates will want to see them.

Writing a Letter. Write a letter to your local or State historical society asking for a copy of any historical plays or pageants of the State which it has for distribution. Tell the society what your class is planning to do, and ask for any suggestions it may be able to give.

Talk to the Class. Prepare a two-minute talk on some current event about your State officers,

State institution, State laws, etc. Do not commit the language of the newspaper or magazine to memory, but state the substance of each article in your own words. Make your own comment and your own opinions about the subjects you discuss.

Reports of Committees. The reports of the different committees on the topics assigned in the beginning of this project should be given orally. Perhaps three or four lesson periods will be required for this work. With the class as a club and the president or some other pupil presiding, begin your report as follows: "Mr. President, I wish to report on 'The Chief Historical Events of our State.'" Follow your outline carefully.

Writing a Letter. Write to an old settler and ask him to be present at a historical program to be given by your class. Urge him to tell the class about some of his early experiences in the State.

Giving a Historical Program. Arrange a program to be given on a definite date and invite another class to be present. If you prefer, you may give it before the assembly of the entire school or grade. The following program is intended to be merely suggestive:

Our State History

1. Song (preferably *America*)
2. Early history
3. Some noted pioneers and what we owe them
4. Song (preferably your State song)
5. Our first and our present governor
6. Talk by an old citizen
7. Song

Dramatization. Dramatize one or more of the most striking events in the history of your State.

When presenting your play, use costumes in imitation of the dress of earlier times if possible.

Tableau. Present an interesting picture of pioneer life. Remember that there will be very little, if any, speaking. Follow this with songs and dances.

Write a Letter. Write a letter telling a class in the junior high school of some other city about your historical program. Ask them whether or not they are undertaking any projects of this kind.

II. THE COMPLEX SENTENCE: ADJECTIVE CLAUSE

The Relative Clause. You have learned that a clause may be used as a modifier in a sentence. When it is so used, it does not make an independent assertion but belongs to some other word in the sentence. A sentence containing a clause used as a modifier or as a substantive is called *a complex sentence*.

If the clause belongs to a noun or pronoun, it is an *adjectival* clause. The most common *adjectival* clauses are introduced by the relative pronouns *who*, *which*, *what*, and *that*, and by certain compound forms of these words, such as *whoever*, *whichever*, and *whatever*. Such clauses are called *relative clauses*.

1. The man *who* is honest deserves praise.
2. The man *whom* we met yesterday is the secretary.
3. The house *that* stands on the corner is used for a recruiting station.
4. The man from Centerville, *who* is very wealthy, bought the farm.
5. A law *that* cannot be enforced should not be enacted.

Suppose now that you take the subordinate clauses out of the sentences. They will appear as follows :

who is honest
whom we met yesterday
that stands on the corner
who is very wealthy
that cannot be enforced

To what noun does each of these clauses belong? In order to answer this question, you must know to what word each of the relative pronouns refers. In the first sentence *who* refers to *man*, and so the whole clause belongs to the noun *man*. The word to which a pronoun refers is called its *antecedent*.

Sometimes a relative does not stand immediately after the word to which it refers.

The rock *to which they were directing their unseen course* was marked by a jet of foam.

The relative pronoun is not always the subject substantive of the clause in which it is found. It is necessary to take the clause out of the sentence in order to determine just how the pronoun is used. It will then be easy to determine whether it is the subject or object of something.

Observe the following :

1. The wagon *in which sat two children* was standing near the store.
2. The soldier *he struck* fired his gun at him.
3. The price *that he paid* was not high.

If you take out the relative clauses, they will appear as follows :

in which sat two children
(whom) he struck
that he paid

The skeletons of the clauses are as follows :

children sat
he struck
he paid

It is clear that the pronouns are not a part of the skeleton in any case. In the first sentence *which* is a part of the prepositional phrase *in which* — a phrase that modifies *sat*. In the second the pronoun must be supplied. As the skeleton is already complete, you need an object; so you supply the object form *whom*. In the third sentence the skeleton is also complete and you can easily see that the pronoun is the object of *paid*. Often the relative is omitted when it is the object of the verb in the clause.

Sometimes a clause is thrown into a relative in a parenthetical way. It is, of course, no part of the relative clause.

The man who *we supposed* had committed the crime suddenly left town.

Sometimes an adjective clause is introduced by a mere connective — a *subordinate conjunction*.

1. The house *where Lincoln was born* still stands.
2. The time *when the crime was committed* is not known.

Exercise 1

Select the principal clauses and the subordinate clauses. To what word does each clause belong? Find the skeleton of each clause. Is the relative used as subject or object of something?

1. One of our graduates who was employed here joined the officers' training camp at Niagara Falls.

2. The old lady in whose car we rode to church is my aunt.
3. The effort that we made was not great enough to insure success.
4. There is something attractive in the culture that is possessed by the average teacher.
5. Those who do charitable work acquire a sense of responsibility which could have been obtained in no other way.
6. The carriage in which the speaker rode was drawn by four milk-white horses.
7. The contract he made could not be enforced.
8. The house where the crime had been committed has since been left vacant.
9. Dolly Winthrop was the good woman on whom Silas depended for advice.
10. The excuse the child gave was not sufficient.
11. The pastor of the church, with whom the board of trustees had held an interview, has not resigned.
12. The child could do anything that any other boy could do.
13. In the afternoon we went to see the Mississippi River, which, you know, is called the "Father of Waters."
14. The moment had passed when a successful attack could be made.
15. The ships that carry food and clothing to the people of Europe have just set sail.
16. What have you heard about the camps in which our soldiers were trained.
17. This is the man whom all are praising.
18. The nation that started the war was anxious to stop it.
19. Asia, which is the largest of the continents, is many miles distant.
20. Do you remember the story he told on Christmas Day?

Analysis. Notice carefully the analysis of the complex sentence :

"The chair in which he sat was very old."

This is a complex declarative sentence. The complete subject is "The chair in which he sat", of which "chair" is the subject substantive and "in which he sat" an adjective clause limiting chair."

The complete predicate is " was very old ", of which " was " is a linking verb and " old " a predicate adjective.

Exercise 2

Analyze the following sentences :

1. The stranger who stood before him was tall and strong.
2. We have an income that will keep us both.
3. A man whose conscience is clear can enjoy life.
4. The farm he bought should be developed in many ways.
5. Mr. Brown is a man in whom the people have great confidence.
6. The time when the people should unite their efforts has come.
7. All that you need is money.
8. Our city has a charter which provides for the initiative, referendum, and recall.
9. The horse that won last year has since been sold to a stranger.
10. There was no way by which we could make our escape.
11. The house was completely hidden in a grove of trees that grew beyond the road.
12. I threw the boy a rope, which he clasped tightly in both hands.

Punctuation. Sometimes an adjective clause modifies a noun so closely that it could not be omitted without impairing or changing the meaning of the sentence. Such a clause may be called an *essential* clause. All others may be classed as *non-essential* clauses. The following sentences contain essential clauses :

1. The man *that works for the Brown Shoe Company* is my uncle.
2. The gun *which he pointed at me* was loaded.
3. The horse *that I wanted most* had already been sold.

The clauses above point out some particular thing in each case. Notice how the thought would be changed if they were omitted.

The non-essential clause modifies a noun very loosely. It presents an additional idea. You may change such a clause to an independent assertion beginning with *and*.

Napoleon, who undoubtedly wished to become a world conqueror, met defeat at Waterloo.

The clause may be changed to read as follows :

Napoleon met defeat at Waterloo, and he undoubtedly wished to become a world conqueror.

The writer can readily feel that the non-essential clause is loosely attached. He should, therefore, set off such clauses by commas — thus :

1. William R. Newell, *who is a profound Bible student*, believes in prophecy.
2. I handed him a bucket of cold water, *which he emptied into the tub*.

Exercise 3

Determine which sentences need punctuation and supply commas only where they are needed.

1. Cleveland who liked to hunt and fish was very popular with the people of New York.
2. We are like swimmers who are fond of the tossing current.
3. The soldier that deserts his post can be trusted in no other position.
4. The merchant was assisted by his wife who would come to the store at almost any time during the day.
5. We appeared at the door at which we began to knock repeatedly.
6. We sat on an old barrel which had once contained cider and ate our lunch.
7. The door that opened into the hall was now shut fast.
8. Many prosperous farmers live in the valley of the Missouri River which pours its floods of muddy water into the Mississippi.

9. The ropes that held down our tent broke very suddenly.
10. My father bought land that was fertile.
11. Women who are really as intelligent as men have gained the right of suffrage.
12. The lake on whose shores we delighted to camp now offered us no further attractions.
13. In the opinion of men whose judgment can be trusted Liberty Bonds are a safe investment.
14. Have you ever read the story of Ichabod Crane who was a pioneer schoolmaster.
15. The attempt that we made failed to break the enemy lines.

CHAPTER FOURTEEN

I. A THRIFT CAMPAIGN

The first page of a Thrift bulletin issued by a large bank is shown here. Note how the necessity for saving is emphasized in the second paragraph.

PROJECT XIV. CONDUCTING A THRIFT CAMPAIGN

Planning the Work. Your school may have a bank of its own established for the purpose of teaching both thrift and banking. If so, you will have no difficulty in conducting your campaign. Your talks, posters, themes, letters, and advertisements will all center about the bank. Or, if your school does not have a bank, it may be teaching thrift through the sale of Thrift Stamps. Here also your speaking and writing will center about the sale of the stamps. Again, if your school has neither of the agencies mentioned, your class may organize a thrift society and elect a president and secretary to manage its affairs. You may be able to secure small metal banks from one of your local business houses. These can be used in saving small amounts of money at school, and your savings can later be deposited in the bank when you have saved one dollar or more.

If it does not seem possible to follow any of the above plans, you can still very profitably conduct a thrift campaign merely through talks, themes, ad-

THE EVOLUTION OF A MAN



Prologue

The baby — the boy — the youth — the man, then middle age — followed by old age, and all too often completing the circle back to the dependence of childhood. . . .

The youth — the man — looking forward, does not realize that eighty-four out of every hundred men reaching the age of sixty-five become dependent on others for support. Sixty-five seems such a long way off — so much can happen — but time slips by. . . .

Won't you profit by the experience of others? The caution of men who go from childhood dependence to old age dependence, and the advice of men who attain independence, and retain it in old age, is the same. . . . you must save save save. . . .

vertisements, and letters. The project will result in much good to every pupil and the work will be more than worth the time it takes.

The president of the class should appoint committees to investigate and report on each of the following topics :

1. Local savings banks, their rules, business forms, advertisements, etc.
2. Thrift Stamps and Government Bonds
3. Building and loan associations, purpose, plan of making loans, etc.

These committees should begin their work immediately and be ready to report on a date to be definitely settled by the teacher.

Talk to the Class. Prepare a two-minute talk on the subject *Why I think a thrift campaign should be held*. Study the advertisements of the local savings banks as you find them in newspapers and magazines. Make a list of the reasons you find and arrange your material in the form of an outline. Mention your strongest point last, as this will add emphasis.

Making a Thrift Poster. With the help of your drawing teacher, design a poster somewhat like the illustration on page 149. Make an interesting sentence or two to accompany your drawing — for example, "To-day is worth ten to-morrows. A savings account established to-day makes your future more secure."

Writing a Letter. Write a letter to the president of one of your local banks asking permission for your class to visit the bank. Your teacher will mail the best one.

Talk to the Class. Look through the current numbers of magazines and newspapers and select



IN the game of life the winning battery is
“ Thrift and Economy ” — the losing battery,
“ Extravagance and Waste.”

Saving money, like baseball, should be a
National Game.

You will make a “ hit ” with your family by
opening a Mercantile Savings account to-day.

several interesting articles on thrift. Read one of these carefully and tell its chief points to the class.

Writing an Advertisement. Write an advertisement for your school paper. If your school has a bank, let your work apply to it. If not, design it for your thrift society.

A good advertisement must :

1. Attract attention
2. Have a message
3. Appeal to the customer's needs
4. Use appeals within the customer's experience
5. Make a personal appeal by the use of the pronoun *you*

The following outline should generally be followed :

1. A sentence or sentences to attract attention
2. Brief description or explanation of the thing to be sold for the purpose of creating desire
3. Illustrations or proofs
4. A sentence or sentences of persuasion — as, "Write Your Declaration of Independence in a savings pass-book."
5. Sentence or sentences offering inducement to secure action — as, "Accounts opened and deposits made the first five days of July draw interest from July First."

Note carefully the advertisement on page 151. How closely does it conform to the foregoing outline? Make your advertisement resemble this in plan :

Reports of Committees. The committees appointed earlier in the work of this project should now be given time to report orally to the class. Each chairman should arrange his material in the form of an outline, which he should follow in his discussion.

Making a Thrift Book. Every pupil should write a theme on the subject of thrift. These themes



YOUR forefathers won Independence on the field of battle against fearful odds—with weapons now obsolete.

You fight for Independence in the field of industry. Your most valued weapon is thrift.

Write your Declaration of Independence in a Mercantile Savings pass-book.

Accounts opened and deposits made the first five days of July draw interest from July First.

should be read to the class and the best five or six chosen to be copied and bound together as a thrift book.

Two-minute Talks. Invite another class to be your guests and entertain them with talks on thrift, using such subjects as *My plan for saving money*.

Writing a Letter. Write to a friend asking him to visit your school bank or to be present at a program to be given by your class.

II. THE COMPLEX SENTENCE: THE ADVERBIAL CLAUSE

The Adverbial Clause. A subordinate clause may tell something about the verb in an independent assertion. In the following sentences the subordinate clauses belong to the verb :

1. The people will rejoice *when the war is over*.
2. The train left *before we arrived*.
3. The child cried *because he was hurt*.
4. We work *while our children sleep*.
5. A man should live *where he can find work*.
6. Conduct the exercises *as you wish*.
7. I would scold the boy *if he were here*.
8. The governor continued his address, *though he was very ill*.
9. We whistled *that we might appear brave*.
10. The man failed, *since his money was taken from him*.

Every clause must have a skeleton — a subject substantive and a predicate verb. Always make sure that you have not mistaken a phrase for a clause. Test the expression by finding its subject and predicate; then find the word in the principal assertion to which the clause belongs. Note care-

fully what word each clause modifies in the foregoing sentences.

will rejoice when the war is over
 left before we arrived
 cried because he was hurt
 work while our children sleep
 should live where he can find work
 conduct as you wish
 would scold if he were here
 continued though he was very ill
 whistled that we might appear brave
 failed since his money was taken from him

You have learned that independent clauses are connected by such conjunctions as *and*, *but*, *for*, *or*, *nor*, and *neither*. Since the clauses were coördinate, you were taught to call them coördinate conjunctions. You will observe that the clauses above are joined to the principal assertions by such connectives as *when*, *while*, *where*, *before*, *because*, *as*, *since*, *if*, *though*, and *although*. Since these conjunctives join subordinate assertions to the verb, they should be called *subordinate conjunctions*.

Sometimes a subordinate clause belongs to an adjective or an adverb.

The following sentences show their clauses in this construction.

1. Culture is more precious *than money*.
2. The carpenter did the work as well as *any one could*.

If we write the clauses and the words to which they belong, we can see this more clearly.

more precious *than money (is)*
 as well as *any one could*

Often the verb must be understood in clauses of comparison.

1. Iron is heavier *than wood* (is heavy).
2. We were as happy *as birds* (are happy).

Sometimes a connective is omitted, as you will observe from these examples.

Had he been here, he would have spoken.
(*If*) *he had been here*, he would have spoken.

Sometimes a sentence has a clause depending on it in a peculiar way — in an idiomatic way, which we need not analyze.

The more he worked, the richer he became. (*The* is an adverb.)

Exercise 1

Select the adverbial clauses, and tell to what each belongs.

1. Last summer we took a trip to a lighthouse while we were spending a few weeks on a small island in Green Bay.
2. We caught no fish because we had no bait.
3. After we had worked for several minutes, we succeeded.
4. We had just finished breakfast when little Ruth entered.
5. Our national guard was sent to France before winter came.
6. All had to save that our armies might be fed.
7. If we had taken lunch, we could have stayed much longer.
8. Although both teachers and pupils wanted a holiday, the board of education would not grant it.
9. Had the captain done his duty, his vessel might not have been lost.
10. If I were you, I would do my work very faithfully.
11. After we had left Jefferson Barracks, we walked a mile down the road towards a village.
12. Put the book where I can find it.
13. My mother invited the Sunday-school class to dinner, while I was absent on a vacation trip.

14. We had lunch as soon as we arrived.
15. Just before we left the park, we visited the large bird-cage.
16. When Harold came, he brought his little three-year-old sister with him.
17. Although James treated his sister with respect, he considered girls as trifling things.
18. Felix felt revengefully toward his new enemy, though he apparently paid no attention to him.
19. One day when Mr. Lyon was not at home, Felice brought Esther to task for her frivolity.
20. The soldier had been sent home because he had received permanent injuries in battle.
21. The James brothers died as boldly as they had lived.
22. Ellen spied a stranger while she was looking across the lake.
23. The untrained soldier will rush in where the seasoned veteran would fear to go.
24. Had our soldiers been trained sufficiently, we could have put them into the field sooner.

Analysis. Notice carefully the analysis of these complex sentences containing adverbial clauses.

1. "He had just arrived at the top of the hill, when his pack fell into the dust."

This is a complex declarative sentence. The complete subject is "He", and the complete predicate "had just arrived at the top of the hill, when his pack fell into the dust." The predicate verb is "had arrived", which is modified by the simple adverb "just" and the complex phrase "at the top of the hill." The predicate verb is also modified by the adverbial clause "when his pack fell into the dust."

2. "The donkey plodded along so slowly that he could go only a few miles in a day."

This is a complex declarative sentence. The complete subject is "The donkey", of which the

subject substantive is "donkey." The complete predicate is "plodded along so slowly that he could go only a few miles in a day." The predicate verb is "plodded." The adverbs "along" and "slowly" modify "plodded." "Slowly" is modified by the adverb "so" and the adverbial clause "that he could go only a few miles in a day." It is perhaps more accurate to say that the clause modifies "so slowly."

Exercise 2

Analyze the following sentences :

1. Although the man beat the donkey with his cane, the little animal would walk fast for only a few minutes.
2. When Scott worked at his manuscript, he let nothing bother him.
3. Since he could not find lodging in the village, he pressed on into the country.
4. If the people of any country are united in their efforts, they can obtain their freedom.
5. A man could not stay long in Cranford because he would find himself alone among many women.
6. Before the old man died, he gave his son some very important advice.
7. When spring comes, every one goes to the park.
8. The lawn was so beautiful that even the old house was attractive.
9. As soon as they arrived, Marianne wrote a note to Charles.
10. Had the governor signed the bill, it would have become a law.
11. The merchant's fortune was so large that he could easily give away great sums of it.

Sentences Containing More than One Subordinate Clause. Sometimes a sentence contains more than one subordinate clause. These clauses may be

coördinate — that is, they may play the same part. When so used, they are connected by a coördinate conjunction, such as *and*, *but*, *for*, *or*, *nor*, *either* — *or*, *neither* — *nor*, *both* — *and*, or *not only* — *but also*. The following are examples :

1. *When the train arrived and while it was standing at the station, the fight was going on.*
2. *A boy should keep his manhood both while he is at home and when he is away.*

It is generally advisable not to make one subordinate clause depend upon another subordinate clause, for this causes the whole sentence to appear too complex. Simplicity and clearness insure effective expression.

A compound sentence may have one, or both, of its members complex. Notice the following sentence, containing complex members :

When the train arrived, the soldiers went to their tents ; and after they had washed their hands and faces, they ate dinner.

Observe that the members of such compound sentences are separated by a semicolon, because each contains a comma. This kind of punctuation greatly aids the eye in reading and the mind in grasping the thought.

Punctuation. It is very important to fix in mind the correct punctuation of the complex sentence. This is particularly true of those that contain adjectival and adverbial clauses.

An adverbial clause often stands first in the sentence, and in fact this arrangement gives the statement greater emphasis. Such clauses are generally called introductory or inverted clauses, and should be so designated. It is now almost the universal

practice to set off these introductory clauses by a comma — thus :

1. *While the boy was still gazing up the valley*, the rumbling of wheels was heard in the distance.
2. *If he sang of a mountain*, the eyes of all mankind beheld a mightier grandeur reposing on its bosom.
3. *When the President signed the bill*, it became a law.

The introductory adverbial clause is out of its natural order. If, however, it is changed to its normal position after the verb, the comma is generally omitted. This is due to the fact that the adverbial clause is almost always an essential clause in ordinary writing and speaking — that is, it modifies the verb closely.

1. The boy cried *because he was cold*.
2. The soldier pressed forward *though* he feared the enemy greatly.
3. Every man works *that he may make a living*.
4. John is taller *than I (am)*.

Occasionally an adverbial clause is a loose modifier and is not essential to the expression of the principal thought. Such a clause may be named a *non-essential clause*. It presents an additional idea and is, of course, set off by a comma. The following sentences illustrate this construction :

1. We came suddenly to a bend in the river, *when we began to feel tired of a long journey*.
2. Our team could do nothing on Washington's field, *where we expected to win a complete victory*.

Remember that introductory phrases are not generally set off by a comma.

1. *In the edge of a very dense forest* we saw smoke arising.
2. *About thirty yards before us* an Indian appeared.

Exercise 3

Insert commas and semicolons wherever they are needed.

1. Father Adam had wept when he sold the donkey to Stevenson.
2. When the attack had been completed the soldiers withdrew.
3. We left the village very late at night when all was very quiet.
4. She had two sons but the elder one an imbecile had died a year before.
5. Before the speaker arrived a company of professional musicians played for the audience.
6. The stranger came to see Felix too who had also come home for the holidays.
7. Had he chosen to use his power unjustly the king might have greatly oppressed his people.
8. One day when Henry was not at home his father brought him a very pretty pony.
9. The boy that came to your door will be made manager of the concern if he will accept the position.
10. I cannot go to the entertainment for I have made other plans.
11. I know him he is a spy.
12. Her former husband was a man in whom people had the greatest confidence.
13. The carpenter while he was not a great workman could do ordinary work very well.
14. Everything went well with them till they came to the edge of the forest when shots were heard.
15. We had now given up hope because we had so often failed.
16. Before we had written a single line the teacher ordered us to put away our paper and ink.
17. After the unfortunate interview I went home better satisfied with my present work.
18. We left when the news came.
19. Our servant was so hungry that he stopped his work to eat his dinner.
20. Although the way was rough to our feet we pressed on till the end of the day.

CHAPTER FIFTEEN

I. A SALES CAMPAIGN

During the year your school will probably wish to raise money with which to buy something needed in its work — for example, books for the library, pictures for the different rooms, a victrola for the music department, etc. The motion-picture show or an entertainment will probably be the means used to accomplish this purpose, and a campaign for the sale of tickets to patrons and friends of the school will have to be made. Your class naturally will want to have a part in the work. Your project will therefore be *Conducting a Sales Campaign*, and you will be engaged in one of the following undertakings:

1. Selling tickets for the school picture shows
2. Selling tickets for the school entertainment
3. Selling tickets for the football, basketball, or baseball season

PROJECT XV. CONDUCTING A SALES CAMPAIGN

Planning the Work. You should so thoroughly plan your work that your class will sell more tickets than any other group. Work out your own plans. The following suggestions, however, may assist you: Every pupil should first undertake to sell to his parents and friends, and later to strangers. If your class is to sell more tickets than any other, you

must be superior salesmen. This means that you must very carefully plan your sales talks and then dramatize, or rehearse, them before your class. Gather all the information you can about the motion picture or entertainment you propose to give, and in your talk to the customer cause him to want to buy a ticket. You should follow an outline similar to the following :

1. The purpose of the show or entertainment
2. The place and date
3. What the entertainment consists of (Try to awaken in the customer a desire for it.)
4. Persuasion (Sentences to persuade the customer — for example, " This will be the best show that will come to the Pershing this year ", etc.)
5. The price of the tickets and conclusion of the sale

Of course, you will understand that sales talks may be planned in many ways.

Talk to the Class. With the class as a club, and the president or other member presiding, discuss the following topic: *How I think we should conduct our sales campaign.* If possible, suggest a complete plan.

Writing a Letter. Write a letter to some person in your school district who has no children asking him to grant you an audience — that is, to permit you to come and tell him about your entertainment.

Explain the purpose of your campaign.

Dramatizing a Sale. Before going out to sell tickets you should rehearse your talk before the class and then revise it in the light of class criticisms. You will choose a classmate who will act as customer and then give your talk as effectively as possible. The customer should offer some objections to buy-

ing. You should answer these willingly and politely. Always keep in mind the customer's wishes and do not be over-persuasive.

Making Posters. Make suitable posters for the bulletin boards and for store windows. Choose sentences that attract attention.

Writing a Letter. Write a letter to a pupil absent on account of sickness, telling him about the show or entertainment you are going to have.

II. THE COMPLEX SENTENCE: THE SUBSTANTIVE CLAUSE

The Substantive Clause. Up to this time you have been considering sentences in which the subordinate clauses were used as modifiers. Now you shall see that a clause may take the place of a noun in the sentence. Like a noun, a clause may be used as subject or object. When so used, it should be called a *noun clause*, or, better still, a *substantive clause*. Let us consider two very easy sentences:

1. Woman suffrage was advocated by many.
2. That women should vote was advocated by many.

In the first sentence the subject substantive is *suffrage* and the predicate verb is *was advocated*. In the second the predicate verb remains the same. What expression now takes the place of *suffrage*? Or if it will simplify the matter more, you may ask what it is that *was advocated*. You will see at once that it is the whole group of words that goes before the verb *was advocated*. This group of words is, of course, a clause, because it has a skeleton of its own — a subject substantive and a predicate verb — namely,

women should vote. The word *that* merely introduces the clause and may be called an introductory word.

What is the subject of each of the following sentences?

1. Your victory was announced.
That you had won was announced.
2. The declaration of war was opposed by only a few.
That war should be declared was opposed by only a few.
3. The truth of my statement can now be seen by all.
That my statement is true can now be seen by all.
4. The success of the attempt was questioned by many.
Whether the attempt would be successful was questioned by many.
5. Death by the hand of the enemy is often the soldier's fortune.
That he should die by the hand of the enemy is often the soldier's fortune.

You have already seen that the subject of a sentence may follow the verb when the sentence is introduced by the word *there* — as, “There are two boys in my class.” Here the word *there* tells you to look after the verb for the subject. Now, it may happen that a clause as subject may follow the verb in much the same way. The introductory word in such sentences is *it* instead of *there*. Take, for example, the sentence, “It is important that you should attend the meeting.” The word *it* means nothing without the clause. The introductory word may even be omitted altogether if we write the clause before the verb — thus: “That you should attend the meeting is important.”

Write the substantive clauses before the verb in the following sentences, omitting the word *it*:

1. It was unfortunate that Clay was not elected president.
2. It can be seen that the poor are often mistreated,

3. It was doubtful whether the war would end soon.
4. It was known that the man owned much property.

Sometimes a substantive clause follows a linking verb and refers to the subject — thus :

1. The fact is *that he failed*.
2. Our objection will be *that the work is too difficult*.
3. Nathan Hale's regret was *that he had but one life to give for his country*.
4. My opinion is *that the prisoner is guilty*.
5. Our demand was *that Germany should restore Belgium*.

Sometimes, too, the clause is used as the object of a verb. Read carefully the following sentences :

1. I know the *report*.
I know *that he has been sent to prison*.
2. William promised *obedience*.
William promised *that he would obey*.
3. The child did not know *the solution of the problem*.
The child did not know *how he could solve the problem*.
4. I asked *permission to go*.
I asked *if I might go*.
5. The teacher inquired *the reason for my absence*.
The teacher inquired *why I was absent*.
6. The officers knew *his hiding-place*.
The officers knew *where he was hiding*.

You will observe that the subordinate conjunctions *that, whether, if, how, why, when, and where* are often used to join the noun, or substantive clause to the rest of the sentence. But the connective is frequently omitted — thus :

1. I heard *you were injured*.
2. The general knew *he was right*.
3. The child promised me *he would do the work*.

It should also be stated that a substantive clause may be used after a preposition — thus :

I knew nothing about *what crime was committed*.

Exercise 1

Find the substantive clauses in the following sentences. Which are used as subject of the sentence? Which are used as object of a verb? Find some that are used after linking verbs.

1. That the war was a just one nobody can doubt.
2. That we could accomplish our aim was the belief of all.
3. Whether his effort will fail cannot be determined at this time.
4. That he might fall into the river had never occurred to us.
5. The truth is that none of us could swim.
6. The Camp Fire Girls promised their mothers that they would be careful.
7. We did not know why the boat had been abandoned.
8. The fact is that the earth is round.
9. That we shall have a long winter is believed by all.
10. The secretary asked whether I had signed the letter.
11. It is fortunate that we brought our umbrellas.
12. That the Governor will sign the bill I do not doubt.
13. Each said he would buy a bond.
14. Virginia knew that she was elected president of her class.
15. That pupils should have a part in the government of the school is advocated by a great many writers.
16. I do not remember what I did the first day of school.
17. The judge told the witness that he should remain.
18. The witness was told that he should remain. (The clause is here used as a retained object.)
19. Next morning it was reported that eight men had been killed in a fire at the Christian Brothers' College.
20. That a serious accident did not occur at that time is remarkable.
21. That troops would be sent to Mexico appeared certain at that date.
22. I inquired where I could get a car.
23. That we did not know our own city intimately was proved conclusively.
24. It is evident that some one had set fire to the house.
25. Our club requested that the teacher go with us to the park.

26. That the picnic would be held on Saturday had been determined several days ago.
27. Our opinion is that the boy is innocent.
28. That the lesson is very difficult is known to all.
29. It has been learned that the submarine is a dangerous invention.
30. That the American boys are brave has been conceded by the enemy.

Exercise 2

Select the subordinate clauses in the following sentences and tell how each is used :

1. The automobile, in which sat two physicians, was struck by a street car.
2. At the river we ate the lunch which we had brought with us.
3. Whittier, who was a great American poet, edited a paper.
4. While Harold was playing near the lake, he saw a boat turn over and sink.
5. If the weather were fair, the children could play in the park.
6. The man that called at your office yesterday is my brother.
7. Because somebody had been careless, a terrible explosion occurred.
8. After the hall had been lighted, the audience assembled for the meeting.
9. The child handed me a bucket, in which I placed the shells.
10. The child in whose behalf I appeared did not recognize me.

Analysis. The analysis of sentences containing substantive clauses will help to master this kind of assertions. Notice carefully the analysis of the following sentences :

1. "That the secretary would write the letter was believed by all."

This is a complex declarative sentence. The subject is the substantive clause "That the secretary would write the letter." The complete pred-

icate is “was believed by all”, of which the predicate verb is “was believed.” The predicate verb is modified by the adverbial phrase “by all.”

2. “The fact is that we had failed.”

This is a complex declarative sentence. The complete subject is “The fact”, of which “fact” is the subject substantive. The complete predicate is “is that we had failed”, of which “is” is the linking verb and the clause “that we had failed” the predicate noun, or substantive.

Exercise 3

Analyze the following sentences :

1. That the young man would be killed in battle was feared by his mother.
2. Henry asked that I build a fire.
3. It is expected that every loyal citizen do his part in the great crisis.
4. The belief is that stars are suns.
5. That I succeed at all is a piece of good fortune.
6. The hunter told us that he had killed no squirrels.
7. It is remarkable that more accidents do not happen on our crowded streets.
8. The man said he would do the work.
9. Whether the board of education would grant a holiday was uncertain.
10. That the novel was interesting cannot be doubted by any one.

Punctuation. The substantive clause is not generally set off by a comma. In most cases such clauses are used as subject or object. A subject or object should not be set off unless very long, because there should be no separation in thought. Take, for example, the sentence “John struck the child.” No one would place a comma after *John*,

nor would any one place a comma after *struck*. For the same reason you should not separate the substantive clause from the rest of the sentence. The following sentences are written correctly :

1. That John was brave was believed by all.
2. We knew that the victory was won.

Likewise, the clause is not set off after a linking verb.

1. The fact is that we were unprepared.
2. Our contention is that he is dishonest.

The substantive clause is, however, set off by the comma when it takes the form of a direct quotation. If the quotation is long or formally introduced, the colon may be used.

1. The secretary said, " I shall read the governor's letter."
2. Edward asked, " What should I study? "
3. Lincoln spoke as follows : " Four-score and seven years ago our fathers brought forth on this continent a new nation."

Sometimes a substantive clause is added to a noun to explain it. When it is so used, it should *not* generally be set off by a comma — thus :

1. The belief *that stars are suns* is held by astronomers.
2. The news *that a state of war had been declared* was rapidly spread abroad.

Often, however, a clause so used is introduced by such words as *for example*, *namely*, *for instance*, *that is*, and the like. The dash is generally used before one of these introductory words and a comma after it — thus :

1. The contention of the German leaders — *namely, that America could be ignored in this war* — was founded on ignorance.

2. Mr. Hoover gave us at least one bit of good advice — *that is, that we should waste nothing.*

Exercise 4

Put in marks of punctuation only where they are really needed.

1. That his plan is wise has been doubted.
2. He said "How old are you?"
3. His desire that I act as chairman pleased me.
4. His usual fault namely that he is too slow caused him to lose his position.
5. The attorney knew that the witness was telling a falsehood.
6. There was one demand that he could make that is that he be released.
7. The assertion that the plan will fail is not founded on good judgment.
8. That the time had come to strike a decisive blow no one could doubt.
9. A sentence states a fact for example Children play ball.
10. It is unfortunate that the weather is so cold.

CHAPTER SIXTEEN

I. A TRAVEL MAGAZINE

You will find it interesting to plan and discuss imaginary journeys to various foreign countries. Let us suppose that you are going to visit Japan. On a globe, or with an atlas, trace the route you would take. To what city would you go first? What part of the way would you cover by rail, by lake or river steamer, and by ocean vessel? What interesting stops would you plan to make on the way over?

These journeys will furnish many occasions for descriptive themes and letters. Your work should be prepared carefully and bound in the form of a booklet.

PROJECT XVI. MAKING A TRAVEL MAGAZINE

Planning the Work. You should, of course, work out your own plans as far as possible. However, the following suggestions should be found helpful:

You will find it necessary to gather many of your ideas from books and pictures, such as geographies, works of travel, and works of art. For example, in the Stoddard Lectures you may read of the principal cities and what is to be seen in each. Other works of travel will be found in your school library

or in the city library. The following will prove especially helpful :

The National Geographic Magazine
 Carpenter's Geographic Readers
 Little People Everywhere series
 The Stoddard Lectures
 Letters of Travel, by Phillips Brooks
 Travelogues

Write a chapter of your journey every week, or oftener if time permits, illustrating your work with pictures clipped from magazines or from railway and steamship folders. Post-card collections from foreign countries may sometimes be obtained, and they never fail to add interest to the work.

Each pupil may choose the journey he wishes to take or the class may work in groups. First trace the route you will take and then decide upon the stop-overs you prefer. The following suggestions will prove helpful when making your choice :

1. A journey from your home to England, France, and Italy. Your first stop-over may be in London, where you can see Tower Bridge, Parliament Buildings, St. Paul's Cathedral, Westminster Abbey, a street scene, etc. Probably your next stop-over will be in Paris, where you will visit the Louvre, the Bourse, the Palais Royal, the theaters, etc. From Paris you may take a day's journey to Lyons. Continuing, you will not fail, of course, to stop for a time in Rome, the Eternal City, where you will see many famous buildings — St. Peter's, the Vatican, the Papal residence and gardens, many historic ruins, etc. St. Peter's is 613 feet long, 286 feet wide, and 435 feet high. It cost \$50,000,000 and took 176 years to build.
2. A journey to the famous battlefields of the World War — Château Thierry, Marne, Argonne Forest, etc.
3. A journey to Greece, where you will see evidences of the glorious past — the city of Athens with the remains of the

Parthenon and Propylæum on the Acropolis, etc. A visit to Corinth, Argos, and Sparta.

4. A journey to Russia, where you will stop for a time to see the old city of Moscow which was founded about the middle of the twelfth century. Here you will visit the Kremlin in the center of the city. This old fortress of renown is not a single building, but a collection of palaces, churches, and public offices. Do not fail to see the University. From Moscow you will probably go to Petrograd, on the Neva, where you will enjoy a trip to the Cathedral of St. Isaac, the Ministries, the Admiralty, the University, and the Markets. Greatest of all are the former palaces of the Czar.
5. A journey to Palestine. Do not fail to see Jerusalem, Jaffa, and Bethlehem.
6. A journey to the Philippine Islands, Japan, and China, with stop-overs at Manila, Tokyo, and one or more of the large cities of China.
7. A journey to India with several days' stay in Calcutta, the "City of Palaces."
8. A journey to Egypt. See Cairo, and the Pyramids, the landmarks of the ages.

Talk to the Class. Cut pictures from magazines and railway and steamship folders. With the class as a club and the president presiding, tell the class some interesting facts about the buildings or scenes represented. Preserve the pictures for use in illustrating places visited on your imaginary journeys.

Written English. Place in your notebook a brief sketch of the route you expect to take and the names of some of the important stop-overs.

Talk to the Class. Prepare a two-minute talk on the subject *The longest real journey I have ever taken*. Make an outline of the details you wish to present and follow it closely.

Written English. Write the first chapter of your journey and secure any pictures available to illus-

trate it. Try to secure variety of sentence structure. This can be done by beginning some of your sentences with subordinate clauses or participial phrases. For example, it is more effective to say: " *When we were but a few miles from the port, a storm arose* " than " A storm arose when we were but a few miles from port." Short sentences are often more emphatic than longer ones. It is well, however, to vary their length. Do not be afraid to use the pronoun *I*, and write as if actually talking to a friend. Imitate the language and style of Phillips Brooks's *Letters of Travel*.

Writing a Letter. Write a letter to some railway or steamship company asking for folders describing or illustrating trips that may be taken.

Talk to the Class. Prepare a short talk explaining the advantages of travel and state the cost of a trip abroad.

Written English. Write another chapter of your journey. Perhaps each stop-over will furnish material for a chapter. This will insure unity of the divisions — that is, each will treat of but a single subject.

Writing a Letter. Write a letter to a friend telling him what you saw in some famous place on your journey. Try to write in the same natural way as if you were going to mail the letter. If time permits, read your letter to the class.

Talk to the Class. If possible secure a post-card collection of views of some foreign city or country and tell the class some interesting facts about each picture.

Continuing the Work. The work of making the magazine can be continued as long as necessary,

following the foregoing plan. It is well, however, to plan so that your project will be completed within a month.

II. ANALYSIS OF THE SENTENCE

1. How to Analyze the Simple Sentence

"In a few minutes more there came over the scene another radical alteration."

Oral analysis: This is a simple declarative sentence. The complete subject is "another radical alteration" and the complete predicate "came over the scene in a few minutes more." The skeleton is "alteration came", of which "alteration" is the subject substantive and "came" the predicate verb. The subject substantive is modified by the adjectives "radical" and "another." The predicate verb is modified by the adverbial phrases "in a few minutes more" and "over the scene." The word "there" is merely introductory.

2. How to Analyze the Compound Sentence

"The poet spoke sadly, and his eyes were dim with tears."

This is a compound declarative sentence consisting of two coördinate members joined by the conjunction "and." The complete subject of the first member is "The poet" and the complete predicate "spoke sadly." The skeleton is "poet spoke", of which "poet" is the subject substantive and "spoke" the predicate verb. The subject substantive "poet" is modified by "the" and the

predicate verb "spoke" by "sadly." The complete subject of the second member is "his eyes" and the complete predicate "were dim with tears." The skeleton is "eyes were." The subject substantive "eyes" is modified by the possessive adjective "his" and the predicate adjective "dim." The predicate adjective is modified by the adverbial phrase "with tears."

3. How to Analyze the Complex Sentence

"As Ernest listened to the poet, he imagined that the Great Stone Face was bending forward to listen too."

This is a complex declarative sentence, consisting of an independent clause and two subordinate clauses. The independent clause is "he imagined that the Great Stone Face was bending forward to listen too." The substantive clause "that the Great Stone Face was bending to listen too" is so intimately a part of the independent assertion that it cannot be omitted from the statement. The skeleton of the independent clause is "he imagined." The predicate verb "imagined" is modified by the adverbial clause, "As Ernest listened to the poet." In this subordinate clause the skeleton is "Ernest listened", and the verb "listened" is modified by the adverbial phrase "to the poet." "As" is a subordinate conjunction. The substantive clause is the object of "imagined." Its skeleton is "Great Stone Face was bending." The subject substantive is modified by "the" and the predicate verb is modified by the adverbs "forward" and "too" and by the infinitive "to listen."

Exercise 1

Analyze the following sentences :

1. The village was incorporated, and lots were reserved for a school and a church.
2. A very large part of the expense of the government could be avoided, if the poor homes of the city could be converted into pleasant ones.
3. Unless the relations between the husband and wife are right, the home will be imperfect.
4. There are sections of the States of the Northwest where almost the entire population is Swedish.
5. Our government offers all its people equal rights and opportunities.
6. The thousands who are coming to our shores this year will, in the course of a few years, be proud of the name American.
7. It is a fundamental idea of our government that there are certain political rights held by all.
8. The government may control the way in which a citizen uses his land.
9. If the interests of a community call for a new street, it may be constructed through the property of individuals.
10. Communities may grant the use of their highways to private corporations that render important public services.
11. Residence in a community carries with it duties and rights.
12. The desire for wealth is common among Americans.
13. Streams that once were clear and sparkling have now become impure with the refuse of factories.
14. Impure and unwholesome food should not be sold in the markets and over the counters of stores.
15. Whatever disadvantages the country child may suffer from an isolated life, he has a good chance for a sound body.
16. When the streams became impure with sawdust, the owner ordered them cleaned.
17. The ghost of his old partner, Jacob Marley, came to Old Scrooge and told him of the horrors awaiting such as defy the spirit of Christmas.
18. Moral courage had declined in many European countries before the war.

19. It is a fact that the most highly educated nations fight best.
20. Another man who reads a great deal is Senator McCormick.
21. The troops had become so hardened that they did not mind the rough weather.
22. Passers-by were attracted by a shot, and a crowd quickly gathered.
23. The military authorities are working on the case, and some startling discoveries may be made.
24. Do most of your neighbors own their own homes, or do they rent?
25. As a city grows and the demand for housing facilities increases, rents necessarily become higher.
26. Foreigners naturally drift to sections of the country where there are already a large number of their countrymen.
27. The employer is responsible for the welfare of those who work for him.
28. When an employer finds that he cannot trust one of his employees, he is likely to mistrust them all.
29. The rate of speed at which an automobile may run is established by law.
30. Every year the life-savers perform heroic services and save many lives.
31. Irving, who was born in New York, really belongs to the whole country.
32. Before the meeting was adjourned, an old man told the story of the Indian attacks in the early history of the state.
33. That there should be more interest in good roads is acknowledged by all.
34. In those cities where the people have shown that they really want beautiful streets, much progress has been made toward getting them.
35. It is too often true that pupils do not take good care of their books.
36. The manager of the concern, who happened to be a friend of mine, explained the business.
37. In many States the State university is the greatest educational institution.
38. We have learned that the national government gave a start to the educational work of the States by the donation of tracts of land.
39. The State of Indiana has a very good system of rural schools.

40. In the home there should always be at least one musical instrument.
41. If you have ever lived on a noisy street, you can appreciate the disadvantages of such a place.
42. General Joffre, a distinguished French hero, has visited the United States twice.
43. Ordinances sometimes forbid the littering of streets, but such regulations are commonly disregarded.
44. Among the most beautiful objects in nature are the forest trees.
45. You all know that we have common interests.
46. Whether we should protest against the violations of the law was the question which we discussed.
47. If any question arises as to the meaning of the laws, it is always finally settled by the highest court.
48. In almost every state the people are striving to secure good laws.
49. After the election has been held, everybody should accept the verdict of the people.
50. There has never been a more popular American poet than Longfellow.

CHAPTER SEVENTEEN

I. A PUBLIC DEBATE

A debate is so much like a game or contest that you will enjoy taking part in the work. Many important questions arise naturally from school activities or grow out of school life. The following are suggestive :

1. Should our school adopt the so-called honor system of holding examinations?
2. Should student officers be elected by the student body?
3. Should pupils who have made a high grade in a subject be excused from the term examination?
4. Should special honors, such as giving a school pin or letter, be awarded for good citizenship?
5. Should there be free admission to athletic games?

You will find it interesting to debate such questions as the foregoing. Your project, therefore, is *Holding a Public Debate*.

PROJECT XVII. HOLDING A PUBLIC DEBATE

Planning the Work. In order to insure the greatest interest, arrange a debate with another class in your school or in a different school. Work out every detail of your plan with special care. When and where shall the debate be held? How many judges will be needed and how shall they be chosen? Who shall be the debaters? Naturally, not every

member can appear on the final program. Should your class have a preliminary contest to determine the pupils who should represent it?

The president should appoint the following committees, who should begin their work at once:

1. A committee to suggest a list of suitable questions
2. A committee on arrangements
3. A committee to investigate and report on the rules of debating

Talk to the Class. Prepare a two-minute talk, giving in detail the plan you think the class should adopt for holding the debate. When beginning your talk, say: "Mr. President, I wish to tell the class my plan for holding the debate." When all have spoken, the class should vote on the adoption of one of the plans submitted or should refer the matter to a committee, who will report to the class a day or two later.

Writing a Letter. A plan having been adopted, write a letter to the pupils of another class challenging them to debate with you. Explain the plan the class has adopted and invite them to send a committee on arrangements for a discussion of the matter. The letters should be read to the class and the best one sent.

Report of the First Committee. The committee appointed to recommend a list of suitable questions should now report. The secretary of the class may write the list on the blackboard. After a discussion of the merits of each question, the class should select the best one by vote. The committee on arrangements will next be instructed by the president to propose it to the opposing class.

Written English. As soon as the question for debate has been definitely agreed upon, prepare an

outline, or brief, on the affirmative or the negative side. If you favor answering the question with *yes*, your outline will be an *affirmative brief*; but if you favor answering it with *no*, it will be a *negative brief*. Suppose your question to be *Should student officers be elected by the student body?* Begin your brief as follows and state each point in the form of a sentence :

Student officers should be elected by the student body, for —

1. The students will be more loyal to the officers they themselves elect than to those appointed by the principal.
2. It is a more democratic form of school government when the students choose their officers than when the principal appoints them.

Complete the foregoing brief and be ready to use it when the preliminary debate is held.

Report of the Committee on Rules. The committee on rules should now report orally to the class. Place in your notebooks important facts on such topics as the following :

1. Order in which the speakers appear
2. The closing speech
3. Length of speeches
4. Selection of judges
5. Politeness

Preliminary Debate. With the president or some other pupil presiding, speak on the affirmative or negative side of the question. When all have spoken, the class should choose the five or six who have done the best work to represent the class at the final debate.

Written English. Write a letter inviting the principal or a friend to attend the debate. Tell

him the question to be discussed and explain the plan the classes have agreed upon. Inclose a copy of the program.

The Debate. The debate should be conducted in a fair and impartial manner. When all the speakers have finished their work, the president will ask the judges to decide who has won the debate. The verdict of the judges should be accepted without question.

Writing a News Article. Write an account of the debate for the school paper. Make it brief but interesting. State the question and give the names of the speakers on each side. Give also the names of the judges and tell which side won. Mention the names of visitors. Mention any special features of the program, such as music, etc.

II. SUBSTANTIVES

Common and Proper Nouns. In the following sentences the nouns are written in italics :

1. The *State* to which he referred is *Illinois*.
2. The largest *city* in the *State* is *Chicago*.
3. *Henry* is the oldest *boy* in the *room*.
4. The *name* of the present *month* is *July*.

In the first sentence which of the two nouns, *State* or *Illinois*, is the name of a particular thing? In the second which is the name of a particular place, *city* or *Chicago*? Answer the same questions about the nouns in the third and fourth sentences.

You will observe that there are two kinds of nouns — those that apply to any one of a whole class and those that name particular things. The

first kind, including such nouns as *city*, *boy*, *room*, and *month*, is known as a class noun.

A *common noun* is one that applies to a whole class or to any one of a class of persons, places, or things.

The following are examples of common nouns :

member	cow	river	club
grocer	girl	lake	book
day	man	mountain	street
table	boy	hill	church
month	dog	school	continent

A *proper noun* is one that applies to a particular place, person, or thing.

The following are examples of proper nouns :

James	St. Louis	Olive Street
Thomas Jefferson	Boston	Lake Michigan
Helen	Washington	Columbia University
Helen Keller	<i>New York Times</i>	Panama Canal
Fort Sumter	Clark School	<i>Globe-Democrat</i>
Niagara Falls	North Station	New England

A *proper noun* should begin with a capital letter. Notice that each noun is so written in the preceding illustration.

Sometimes a common noun does not apply to a concrete object but to a quality or idea — as, *duty*, *kindness*, *honesty*, *jealousy*. Such nouns are called *abstract nouns*.

Sometimes also a common noun is the name of a group — as, *herd*, *flock*, *drove*, *army*, *school*, *nation*, *jury*, *senate*.

The following are examples of compound nouns :

sister-in-law	editor in chief
commander in chief	man-of-war
book agent	insurance agent

Exercise 1

Separate the following nouns into two groups, the one containing common nouns and the other proper nouns :

club	October	pupil
American	Sunday	Herbert
Red Cross	holiday	Grand Central Station
baby	spy	Robinson Crusoe
children	general	Forest Park
<i>Little Women</i>	Europe	man
Louisiana	<i>Mayflower</i>	hero
author	conductor	chicken
Kipling	county	lake
pencil	leader	Senator Stone
house	Bunker Hill	Nottingham

Gender. Some nouns denote males, some females, and others do not indicate sex at all. The following nouns indicate sex. Separate them into two lists, one denoting males and the other females.

man, woman, father, nephew, mother, brother, niece, son, sister, daughter, gander, hero, tiger, actor, goose, heroine, tigress, heir, actress, heiress.

A noun that is used in speaking of males is of the *masculine gender* — as, *man, boy, hero, lad*.

A noun that is used in speaking of females is of the *feminine gender* — as, *woman, girl, heroine, lass*.

A noun that is used in speaking of things that are neither male nor female is of the *neuter gender* — as, *book, tree, house, wagon*.

Certain pronoun forms also denote gender. Those that denote males are *he, his, him, himself*. Those that denote females are *she, her, and herself*. Those of the neuter gender are *it and itself*.

Case. The subject of case is of small importance in correct speaking and writing, as there is but one special form, the *possessive*, or *genitive*, and this we shall study under the heading of *Common Forms* and *Possessive Forms*. Your attention will be called, however, to the various case relations and case names because some of these facts will be found helpful in the study of pronouns.

A noun that is used as subject of the sentence is in the *nominative case*.

1. The *book* has been lost.
2. The *New York Times* gave an account of the battle.

A predicate noun is also in the nominative case, and is generally called a *predicate nominative*.

1. The senator is an *orator* of ability.
2. The little speck became a great *cloud*.

A noun that is used in address or in apposition is also in the nominative case.

1. *William*, bring me the book.
2. Grant, the *general*, kept his soldiers cheerful.

The personal pronouns have special forms for the subject, which we may call subject forms, or nominatives — as, *I*, *we*, *he*, *she*, and *they*. The relative *who* is also a subject form.

A noun that is used as the object of a verb is in the *accusative*, or the *objective*, case.

Henry struck the *ball*.

A noun that is used as the object of a preposition or as an indirect object, adverbial object, or

objective predicate, is in the accusative, or objective, case.

1. The secretary went with the *President*. (*President* is the *object of with*.)
2. The dentist gave *Charles* a brush. (*Charles* is an *indirect object*.)
3. The members of the club made John *chairman*. (*Chairman* is an *objective predicate*.)
4. The men rode a *mile* farther. (*Mile* is an *adverbial objective*.)

The personal pronouns have special forms for the accusative, or the objective, which we may call object forms — as, *me*, *us*, *him*, *her*, and *them*. The relative form *whom* is also an object form.

A noun that has the possessive form is commonly said to be in the *possessive*, or *genitive*, case — as, *Frank's*, *lady's*.

Exercise 2

Select the nouns and state the case of each :

1. The world has always had reformers.
2. The task of America is a difficult one.
3. Lincoln gave the world a lesson in common sense.
4. The children remained a week at the lake.
5. Everyone called him captain.
6. This, my friends, is an impossible task.
7. Mr. Hines, the editor, took a long vacation.
8. We pronounced his statement a falsehood.
9. The boy returned Henry's book.
10. Ladies' hats were on sale at the store.
11. The end of a long and perilous journey was at last in sight.
12. The pupils seemed anxious for the end of the term of school.
13. From the Gulf of Mexico to the Great Lakes, and from sea to sea, the people manifested the same whole-hearted patriotism.
14. The city was situated on the shore of the lake.
15. The men who have manifested the greatest energy in their work have succeeded best.

Common and Possessive Forms. Everyone knows that nouns change their form to denote one or more than one — as, *boy, boys; child, children;* and *man, men*. This change of form is, of course, called *number*. Aside from this, nouns have but two forms — the *common form* and the *possessive form*. The possessive is sometimes called the *genitive form*. The common form requires no study, but the possessive should, at least, be briefly considered.

In the following sentences determine how the singular and plural possessive forms are written :

1. The *boy's* coat is large.
2. *Boys'* coats were on sale.
3. The *man's* suit is new.
4. *Men's* and *boys'* clothing was sold at the store.
5. *Charles's* book is torn.
6. The *Charleses'* reigns were eventful.
7. A *month's* interest is due.
8. We shall have a ten *months'* term of school.
9. *Dickens's* novels and *Burns's* poems are still popular.

The rules for forming the possessive may be stated as follows :

1. To form the singular possessive add the apostrophe and *s*.
Practically all nouns ending in *s* or the sound of *s*, should form their possessive in the regular way — by adding the apostrophe and *s*. There are but few exceptions to this rule, and the tendency of present good usage is to follow it strictly. However, one or two exceptions should be mentioned — for example, *Goodness' sake* and *conscience' sake*.
2. To form the plural possessive of nouns ending in *s* add the apostrophe only — for example, *boys', Germans', wives', ladies'*.

To form the possessive of plurals not ending in *s* add both the apostrophe and *s* — for example, *men's, children's*. In order to avoid errors we should first make sure of the plural form and then add whatever is necessary to make the word possessive.

The following list of words shows possessive singular and possessive plural forms :

<i>Singular</i>	<i>Plural</i>
man's	men's
wife's	wives'
Charles's	Charleses'
Burns's	Burnses'
child's	children's
fox's	foxes'
German's	Germans'
Dickens's	Dickenses'
ox's	oxen's

The possessive should not generally be used of things without life. The prepositional phrase introduced by *of* should be used instead — for example, *the cover of the book, the shape of the field*. There are, however, a few exceptions — namely, *a stone's throw, ten months' term, the law's delays*.

Occasionally the double possessive is used, or perhaps we should say the double genitive — thus, *a mistake of the printer's, a son of my sister's*. These forms should be considered idioms and passed as such without further explanation.

Exercise 3

Choose the correct possessive form :

1. (Mens', men's) hats were on sale.
2. (Boys', boy's) and (girls', girl's) toys were found in every home.
3. We had the pleasure of meeting (Charles', Charles's) father.
4. The (children's, childrens') playground was sold.
5. Father was proud of the volume of (Burns', Burns's) poems.
6. We bought our clothes at (Smith's and Brown's, Smith and Brown's) store.
7. School closed for a two (days', day's) vacation.

8. The (bottle's shape, shape of the bottle) was very unusual.
9. The (wolf's, wolves') skins were hanging on the wall.
10. The man returned the money merely for (conscience's sake, conscience' sake).
11. The error was a mistake of the (printer's, printer).

Kinds of Pronouns. In speaking and writing it is convenient to have words that you can use instead of nouns. A number of little words, such as *he*, *she*, *his*, *her*, and *they*, are used to do this important work. They are called *pronouns*. The word for which a pronoun stands is called its *antecedent*. In the following sentences the pronouns are in italics and the antecedent in parentheses:

1. *He* (William) enjoyed the music.
2. *Which* (picture) does *she* (Helen) like?
3. *They* (the class) favor the *one* (boy) *who* (boy) can preside well.

The following are some of the pronouns that we use constantly:

I	you	him	them	whose
me	yours	she	it	whom
we	he	her	its	which
us	his	they	who	that
mine	ours	theirs	thine	what

Pronouns may be classified as *personal*, *possessive*, *demonstrative*, *interrogative*, *relative*, and *indefinite pronouns*. The *personal pronouns* refer directly to persons and include *I*, *we*, *me*, *us*, *you*, *he*, *she*, *him*, *her*, *they*, and *them*.

The *possessive pronouns* are *mine*, *thine*, *his*, *hers*, *ours*, *yours*, *theirs*, and *whose*.

1. This book is *mine*.
2. *His* is a difficult task.
3. The honor is *theirs*.

The *demonstrative pronouns* are *this* and *that* and their plurals *these* and *those*.

1. *This* is a difficult undertaking.
2. *That* is evidently his purpose.

The *interrogative pronouns* are those that are used in asking questions. They are *who*, *whom*, *which*, and *what*.

1. *Who* was elected?
2. *Which* do you prefer?
3. *What* do you want?

The *relative pronouns* are those that join a subordinate clause to their antecedent. They include *who*, *which*, *that*, and *what*. In succeeding lessons we shall learn more of their work in the sentence. The pronoun *who* should be used in speaking of persons; *which*, in speaking of animals or things; and *that*, in speaking of persons, animals, or things. *What* is a sort of double relative used in speaking of things.

The *indefinite pronouns* are those that point out something indefinitely. The following are the chief members of this group: *one*, *some one*, *any one*, *any*, *no one*, *none*, *everyone*, *each*, *the other*, *neither*, and *both*.

The compound personal pronouns, such as *myself*, *yourself*, *himself*, and the like, are sometimes called *reflexives* or *intensives* according to their use in the sentence.

1. The boy accidentally struck *himself*. (Reflexive.)
2. The teacher *himself* made an error. (Intensive.)

Each other and *one another* are sometimes called *reciprocal pronouns*. *Each other* should be used in

speaking of two things and *one another* in speaking of more than two.

1. The two girls helped *each other*.
2. Neighbors should help *one another*. (If three or more are thought of.)

Exercise 4

Select the pronouns in the following sentences and classify each :

1. I was unable to win the prize.
2. They found the boy who did the wicked deed.
3. Whom do you desire to see?
4. This manuscript is mine.
5. Some one called to see you while you were absent.
6. I myself was not free from blame.
7. Children should love one another.
8. Neither could solve the problem which the teacher had assigned.
9. None has done his full duty.
10. That is not so difficult as this.
11. Both of the boys were drowned when the boat capsized.
12. Which do you prefer?
13. Of the books that remained, I did not care to select any.
14. I saw him when he tried to hide himself behind the bushes.
15. One of the boys is mistaken.

Subject and Object Forms. The *personal pronouns* are those that refer to persons. They include special pronouns to denote the speaker, the person spoken to, and the person spoken of. The first person pronouns are *I* and *we* and the object forms *me* and *us*. The second person pronoun is *you*. The third person pronouns are *he*, *she*, and *they* and the object forms *him*, *her*, and *them*. The subject forms are those that are used as the subject of a verb, and the object forms are those that are used as the object of a verb or a preposition.

Subject forms: I, we, you, he, she, it, they, who, whoever.

Object forms: me, us, you, him, her, it, them, whom, whomever.

The following sentences illustrate the use of the subject and object forms :

1. *I* wrote the letter.
2. *We* went to the store.
3. *He* saw the picture.
4. *They* changed their plans.
5. We know the man *who* bought the house.
6. The ball struck *me*.
7. You have disappointed *us*.
8. Between *you* and *me* there should be no misunderstanding.
9. That is the man to *whom* I have spoken.
10. Give it to *whomever* you please. (*whomever* is the object of the preposition *to*.)
11. You may give it to *whoever* wants it. (*whoever* is the subject of *wants*.)

The linking verbs take the subject forms after them. The verb *be* is the chief member of this group. Among its many forms are *am, is, are, was, were, will be, shall be, may be, might be, could be, could have been*, etc.

1. It is *I*.
2. I am *he*.
3. It could not have been *they*.
4. The child might be *she*.
5. I thought it was *he* whom we met.

The infinitives *to be* and *to have been* take object forms after them, except where they are without an independent subject.

1. John believed *it to be me*.
2. We know *the stranger to have been her*.
3. Everybody supposed *the thief to have been him*.
4. We knew *it to have been her*.

In the following sentences *to be* and *to have been* have no independent subject and consequently are followed by subject forms :

1. It is thought *to be he*.
2. The tall woman was supposed *to be she*.
3. I am sometimes taken *to be he*.

Possessive Adjectives. In the following sentences notice the words that are used with nouns and denote possession :

1. The child has *my* hat.
2. We have *our* books.
3. *Your* friend has come.
4. The pupil has found *his* coat.
5. The pupils have found *their* coats.
6. The dog has hurt *its* foot.
7. The man *whose* horse we saw is *my* neighbor.

The words *my*, *our*, *your*, *his*, *her*, *its*, *their*, and *whose* belong to nouns and show possession; they are therefore called *possessive adjectives*. A possessive adjective may be said to have an antecedent, a word to which it refers, and it must agree with this antecedent in person and number. Observe the following illustrations :

1. The boy has lost *his* books.
2. The boys have lost *their* books.
3. I have lost *my* book.
4. We have lost *our* books.

Remember that the following antecedents are always singular: *anybody*, *everybody*, *nobody*, *each*, *each one*, *everyone*, *any one*, *no one*, *man after man*, *either*, *neither*, and *a person*. *Either* and *neither* refer to one of two, but *any* is used of a greater number. *None* is either singular or plural. It should be considered singular when it means *no one*.

The possessive adjectives do not require the sign of the possessive as their forms are already possessive. Such forms as *your's*, *it's*, *theirs'*, *his'*, *her's*, and the like, are wrong when used as possessives. However, *it's* is sometimes used as a contraction of *it is*. Do not use the incorrect forms *ourn*, *yourn*, *hisn*, *hern*, and *theirn*.

Compounds of "self." The compound personal pronouns include *myself*, *ourselves*, *yourself*, *yourselves*, *himself*, *herself*, *itself*, and *themselves*. They are correctly used in a reflexive sense — that is, after verbs to refer back to the subject.

1. John hurt *himself*.
2. They injured *themselves*.

The compound forms are also correctly used for emphasis — thus :

1. George *himself* bought the farm.
2. They *themselves* are guilty of the crime.

They should never be used as subjects — thus :

1. *John and myself* are to blame.
2. *Ourselves* are in the wrong.
3. Another boy and *himself* rowed the boat.

A number of incorrect compounds have crept into the speech of the careless and should be studiously avoided. They include *hissself*, *theiirself*, and a few others.

Confusion of the pronoun and the adjective. A pronoun form should not be used for the adjectives *this* and *that*. It is wrong to say *them boys* for *those boys*. Remember that the plural of *this* is *these* and of *that* is *those*. The pronouns *we* and *us* may, however, be used in apposition with a substan-

tive. *We* should be used with subject forms and *us* with object forms — thus :

1. *We boys* built a fire.
2. The tramp struck *us boys* with stones.
3. *We girls* were knitting for the soldiers.

Do not add an unnecessary personal pronoun after a noun. It is very poor English usage to say, “ James *he* did the work ” and “ Mother *she* said I could go.”

By the so-called rule of courtesy the first person pronoun should stand last in a series — thus :

1. John and *I* went to the lake.
2. May Henry and *I* go ?

Exercise 5

Choose the correct form and give a reason for your choice. Improve sentences where no choice of form is indicated.

1. Everybody leaves (their, his) work.
2. My sister and (myself, I) were members.
3. Ten other girls and (myself, I) went to a camp on the Meramec.
4. Everybody was holding (their, his) breath.
5. A group of girls and (myself, I) went on a trip.
6. (Myself and another girl, another girl and I) went out in a row boat.
7. (Me and my friend, my friend and I) could n't manage the boat.
8. Another boy and (myself, I) went fishing.
9. (Their, there) were traces of shelves on the wall.
10. Ulysses he got under a big ram.
11. If one were to visit Ireland, (he, one) would find the people friendly.
12. Let each do it (hissself, himself).

13. Athene and (him, he) planned to slay the suitors.
14. If they do not pass the test, (he, they) should be rejected.
15. The tailor made two suits of clothes for (he, him) and his son.
16. The boys who climbed the trees hurt (themselves, themselves) badly.
17. (They, there) was one man who refused to join the Red Cross.
18. Somebody got up and said (they, he) rose to a point of order.
19. She and (him, he) left the store.
20. Everyone will fail unless (he does his work, they do their work).
21. Maude made more money than (her, she).
22. The students (which, who) were in the building perished in the fire.
23. The city council thought (this here, this) was the right course to take.
24. (Us boys, we boys) had taken some of the farmer's apples.
25. I think it was (him, he) who broke the lock.
26. The maid she heard a noise in the room.
27. We thought it was (him, he) anyway.
28. Some friends invited my sister and (I, me).
29. My uncle he's a civil engineer.
30. (Me and my brother, my brother and I) were so frightened that we began to run.
31. Each player has a different part assigned to (them, him).
32. Sister begged my brother and (I, me) to take her out of the boat.
33. Henry is older than (myself, I).
34. I spoke to everyone and saw that (they were, he was) seated.
35. Central has no stars on (their, its) team.
36. Part of (we, us) girls remained behind the rest.
37. (Them, those) soldiers came from Jefferson Barracks.
38. The teacher divided the candy between you and (I, me).
39. The superintendent went with her and (I, me).
40. The pie that was left was (ourn, ours).
41. The child cried for (it's, its) toys.
42. Man after man claimed that (they were, he was) opposed to the measure.

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43. The jury was divided in (its, their) opinions as to the guilt of the prisoner.
44. The minister, with two other men, presented (themselves, himself) before the church board.
45. No, it could not have been (him, he) who stole the pencil.
46. The judge still believes it to be (them, they).
47. The judge still believes that it is (them, they).
48. We saw Mary and (him, he) ; we know it was (them, they).
49. My uncle has invited my friend and (I, me) to go to the park with him.
50. The persons (who, whom) you suspected could not have been (us, we).
51. They are more anxious to fight than (us, we).
52. A large contribution was given by the Fuller Brothers (who, whom) you know are very stingy.
53. The pupil, (who, whom) I cannot doubt is guilty of misconduct, should be suspended.
54. Mother believed it was (she, her) (who, whom) she saw in the garden.
55. There is an ocean between the people in France and (we, us).
56. All answered when their names were read but Harold and (I, me).
57. Will mother let you and (I, me) go?
58. (Who, whom) do you take me to be?
59. (Who, whom) do people say he is?
60. We hope it was (he, him) (who, whom) we saw.
61. (He, him) and (I, me) are going to the ball game this afternoon.
62. The waiter gave (he, him) and (I, me) both some meat.
63. This boy is more like (he, him).
64. This matter is of vital interest to all, you and (I, me) among the rest.
65. Give the glass to (whoever, whomever) the captain designates.
66. The stranger took the boy to be (I, me).
67. The committee offered the job to (whomever, whoever) wanted it.
68. We went with her father and (she, her) to the concert.
69. The little girl came with Henry and (I, me).
70. The boy came by (hissself, himself).
71. Our parents and (we, ourselves, us) are going to the country.

72. (Whoever, whomever) he may be, he is disloyal to this country.
73. You may choose (whoever, whomever) you please.
74. I will bring my knife, and you should bring (your's, yourn, yours).
75. (Yourself, you) and Charles were appointed to membership on the committee.
76. Let them begin the quarrel (themselves, theirselves).
77. (They, themselves) and their relatives settled in the West.
78. Mother told Mary and (I, me, myself) to go with her.
79. I am believed to be (he, him).
80. (Who, whom) do men say that I am?
81. Who is at the door? It is (me, I).
82. None dares do as (they, he) pleases.
83. A person should not risk (their, his) life in a small boat.
84. Each believed that (he, they) had taken the right road.
85. (Who, whom) do you wish me to call?
86. The crowd was so large that we could hardly force our way through (it, them).
87. If Mary or Eloise disobeys the order, (she, they) will be punished.
88. Six boys and (myself, I) set out across the fields to the river.
89. Professor Naylor he kept an eye on me.
90. Mary thought it was (me, I) who left the letter on the table.
91. One of the boys he did n't know how to swim.
92. Any one should see that (their, his) health does not fail.
93. Jim said another boy and (him, he) did the work.
94. None of (we boys, us boys) could explain (their, his) presence at the game.
95. Maurice (himself, hisself) had taken the last of the boxes from the shelf.
96. The boy should not have taken that which was not (hisn, his).
97. By sufficient evidence the prisoner was shown to be (he, him) who called at my house yesterday.
98. The general will punish the offender, (whomever, whoever) it may be.
99. It might have been (them, they) (who, whom) you say.
100. May Rufus and (I, me) go to the park to-day?
101. The child is dead (who, whom) you shot in the shoulder.

Spelling the Plurals of Nouns. Most nouns form their plural by adding *s* or *es* to the singular, but there are some exceptions to this general rule. It is mainly with these exceptions that the present section deals.

1. To form the plural of nouns ending in *y* preceded by a consonant, change *y* to *i* and add *es*. Other nouns ending in *y* form their plural in the usual way.

academy	academies	enemy	enemies
alley	alleys	energy	energies
ally	allies	fly	flies
attorney	attorneys	journey	journeys
baby	babies	jury	juries
berry	berries	lady	ladies
body	bodies	lily	lilies
caddy	caddies	mystery	mysteries
chimney	chimneys	reply	replies
colloquy	colloquies	soliloquy	soliloquies
copy	copies	story	stories
daisy	daisies	university	universities
ditty	ditties	valley	valleys
doily	doilies	vanity	vanities
donkey	donkeys	worry	worries

2. To form the plural of the following nouns ending in *o*, add *s*:

albino	albinos	lasso	lassos
alto	altos	piano	pianos
dynamo	dynamos	solo	solos
halo	halos	soprano	sopranos

3. To form the plural of the following nouns ending in *o*, add *es*:

cargo	cargoes	hero	heroes
domino	dominoes	mosquito	mosquitoes
echo	echoes	motto	mottoes

negro	negroes	tornado	tornadoes
potato	potatoes	torpedo	torpedoes
tomato	tomatoes	volcano	volcanoes

4. To the following nouns ending in *f*, add *s* to form the plural :

belief	beliefs	gulf	gulfs
chief	chiefs	handkerchief	handkerchiefs
cliff	cliffs	hoof	hoofs
dwarf	dwarfs	roof	roofs
grief	griefs	safe	safes

5. To the following nouns ending in *f* or *fe*, change *f* to *v* and add *es* to form the plural :

beef	beeves	sheaf	sheaves
calf	calves	shelf	shelves
half	halves	thief	thieves
knife	knives	wife	wives
loaf	loaves	wolf	wolves

6. The following nouns have irregular plurals :

child	children	mouse	mice
foot	feet	ox	oxen
goose	geese	tooth	teeth
louse	lice	woman	women

7. To form the plural of most compound words, add *s* or *es* to the principal word. If the word is written solid, *s* or *es* should be added to the end of the word — as, *cupfuls*. Sometimes both words are made plural — as, *men-servants*.

cupful	cupfuls	mouse-trap	mouse-traps
brother-in-law	brothers-in-law	man-of-war	men-of-war
forget-me-not	forget-me-nots	man-servant	men-servants
hanger-on	hangers-on	Knight	Knights
		Templar	Templars

8. Troublesome plurals :

Englishman	Englishmen	talisman	talismans
Frenchman	Frenchmen	Mussulman	Mussulmans
German	Germans	Norman	Normans

9. Plurals to be carefully learned :

monsieur	messieurs	Jane	Janes
(Mr.)	(Messrs.)	Mrs. Lank	<i>the</i> Mrs. Lanks
madam	mesdames	Dr. Gray	Drs. Gray
Jones	Joneses		

10. Some foreign plurals :

alumna	alumnae	datum	data
alumnus	alumni	formula	formulae
analysis	analyses	fungus	fungi
axis	axes	genus	genera
bacterium	bacteria	larva	larvae
basis	bases	oasis	oases
crisis	crises	parenthesis	parentheses
criterion	criteria	phenomenon	phenomena

CHAPTER EIGHTEEN

I. OUR POSTAL SYSTEM

In the early history of our country the mails were carried on horseback, and letters were sent from New York to Boston only two or three times a week. It took more than a month to send a letter a distance that now requires but a single day. From this humble beginning our postal system has grown to the present complex organization.

For the small sum of two cents you can send a letter entirely across the continent. If you wish to have it delivered as soon as it arrives at its destination, you merely stamp it with a ten-cent special delivery stamp. If you wish to send money to some one at a distance, you can purchase a money-order or send bills in a registered letter. These are only a few of the ways in which the postal system aids you. Perhaps you will want to study our postal system and find out for yourself in how many ways it aids the public.

PROJECT XVIII. OUR POSTAL SYSTEM AND HOW IT AIDS THE PUBLIC

Planning the Work. Committees should be appointed by the president of the class or elected to investigate and report on the following topics and the work should be taken up at once :

1. The history of our postal system
2. Special delivery of letters

3. Money orders
4. Postal-savings banks
5. City delivery and Rural Free Delivery
6. The Dead-letter Office

You may plan a visit to your local post office where you can obtain information about stamps, envelopes, postal cards, money orders, and other things it has for sale. You may plan also a further study of letter writing and styles of addressing envelopes. You or other members of your class may be able to suggest many additional things to be done in connection with this interesting project.

Writing a Letter. Write a letter to the postmaster of your city or town telling him about your plans for the study of the postal system and asking for any booklets of information which he may have for distribution. The best one may be mailed or taken by the secretary when the class visits the post office.

A Visit to the Post Office. With the class as a club and the president presiding, discuss plans for your visit to the post office. The president should ask the teacher to make a brief talk pointing out what you should observe particularly. You should make notes on the interesting information you secure on your visit so that you will be prepared to make an outline and write a report later.

Try to secure the following information :

1. The location of the various windows — the stamp window, money-order window, registry window, and general-delivery window
2. The kinds and prices of stamps, envelopes, wrappers, postal cards, etc.
3. The different classes of mailable matter and the rates for each

Making an Outline. Make an outline of the information you received from your trip and copy it in your notebook. Be careful to include the following:

1. What first-class mail matter includes and the rate
2. What second-class mail matter includes and the rate
3. What third-class mail matter includes and the rate
4. Parcel-post matter, rates and rules

Talk to the Class. Prepare a two-minute talk stating clearly what you learned from your trip. Use the outline you have already prepared.

Abbreviations. Abbreviations should be used sparingly in the body of the letter. There are a few, however, that occur very frequently — namely, *C.O.D.*, *F.O.B.*, A.M., P.M., A.D., B.C., *etc.*, *i.e.*, and *viz.* Of course wherever statistical matter is given it will be permissible to use more. In headings and addresses the names of the months and States and the words *street* and *avenue* are usually abbreviated.

Learn the abbreviations of the following titles:

Mr.	Mister	Rev.	Reverend
Messrs.	Messieurs	LL.D	Doctor of Laws
Mrs.			(after name)
Prof.	Professor	Hon.	Honorable
Pres.	President	Gen.	General
Sec.	Secretary	Col.	Colonel
M.D.	Doctor (after name)	Capt.	Captain
Dr.	Doctor	D.D.	Doctor of Divinity (after name)

The following abbreviations of States and territories are those approved by the Post Office Department. Note that *Idaho*, *Iowa*, *Maine*, *Ohio*,

Oregon, Alaska, Guam, and Samoa should not be abbreviated.

Ala.	Alabama	Nev.	Nevada
Ariz.	Arizona	N. H.	New Hamp- shire
Ark.	Arkansas	N. J.	New Jersey
Cal.	California	N. Mex.	New Mexico
Colo.	Colorado	N. Y.	New York
Conn.	Connecticut	N. C.	North Carolina
Del.	Delaware	N. Dak.	North Dakota
D. C.	District of Co- lumbia	Okla.	Oklahoma
Fla.	Florida	Pa.	Pennsylvania
Ga.	Georgia	P. I.	Philippine Is- lands
Ill.	Illinois	P. R.	Porto Rico
Ind.	Indiana	R. I.	Rhode Island
Kans.	Kansas	S. C.	South Carolina
Ky.	Kentucky	S. Dak.	South Dakota
La.	Louisiana	Tenn.	Tennessee
Md.	Maryland	Tex.	Texas
Mass.	Massachusetts	Vt.	Vermont
Mich.	Michigan	Va.	Virginia
Minn.	Minnesota	Wash.	Washington
Miss.	Mississippi	W. Va.	West Virginia
Mo.	Missouri	Wis.	Wisconsin
Mont.	Montana	Wyo.	Wyoming
Nebr.	Nebraska		

Learn the following brief list of commercial abbreviations :

acct. or a/c	account	bldg.	building
agt.	agent	bt.	bought
amt.	amount	bu.	bushel
assn.	association	bx.	box
av.	average	C	hundred
Ave.	avenue	c. or cts.	cents
A1	first class	cap.	capital
bal.	balance	Co.	Company
bbl.	barrel	com.	commission
B/L	bill of lading	cr.	creditor

cwt.	hundredweight	mdse.	merchandise
dep.	deposit	mfd.	manufactured
dept.	department	mfg.	manufacturing
doz.	dozen	mfr.	manufacturer
dr.	debtor	MS.	manuscript
exp.	express	No.	number
F.O.B.	free on board	O.K.	all correct
gal.	gallon	oz.	ounce
hhd.	hogshead	payt.	payment
Inc.	Incorporated	pkg.	package
ins.	insured	prox.	next month
inst.	this month	R.R.	railroad
int.	interest	Ry.	railway
inv.	invoice	St.	street
inv.	inventory	treas.	treasurer
jour.	journal	ult.	last month
lb.	pound	via	by way of
M	thousand	W/B	waybill

Writing a Letter. Write a letter ordering something for yourself or your club. The following will serve as a model :

511 Vine Street,
Taylorville, Ill.,
May 28, 1921.

Scruggs, Vandervoort & Barney,
Ninth & Olive Streets,
St. Louis, Missouri.

Gentlemen :

Please send me by American Express the following sporting goods, for which I enclose a post-office money order for \$19.00 :

1 No. 1 Rawlins Official Volley Ball	\$10.00
1 pair No. 40 BB Rawlins Standard	
Basketball Shoes	5.00
2 No. 5 PG Rawlins Official Play-	
ground Balls at \$2.00	4.00
	<u>\$19.00</u>

Yours truly,
George Warren

Before beginning to write an order letter, answer the following questions :

1. Why should the heading and inside address be complete?
2. Why should the various items be tabulated?
3. Why should shipping directions be mentioned?
4. Why should the amount of money, and the way in which it is sent, be mentioned?

Reports of Committees. The committees appointed when this project was planned should now be ready to report. The chairman of each will report orally or call on some member to do so for him. Important outlines should be placed on the blackboard and copied in your notebooks. Two or three recitation periods may be required for these reports.

Talk to the Class. Members of the class who have collections of stamps should bring them to school where they can be exhibited. Talks should be made on such topics as these :

1. How to collect stamps
2. Rare stamps in my collection
3. What you will learn by collecting stamps

Writing a Letter. Write a letter to an important firm in your city asking them to answer the following questions :

1. Do you omit end punctuation in headings and addresses?
2. Do you use the vertical or oblique margin in headings and addresses?
3. Should the vertical or oblique margin be used in writing envelope addresses?

The following style of addressing envelopes is approved by the United States government :

Mr. Howard Sharp,
623 South Wabash Ave.,
Chicago,
Illinois.

Debate. Prepare an outline or brief on the question, "Should all postal employees be pensioned by the government after twenty-five years' service?" When ready to give the debate, invite three persons to act as judges. Follow parliamentary usage.

II. VERBS

Careful investigation has shown that more mistakes are made in the use of verbs than in the use of any other part of speech. Most of these mistakes occur in the failure of the verb to agree with its subject in person and number, in the confusion of the past and present tenses, and in the confusion of the past tense and the past participle. It will be necessary, therefore, to give an explanation of person, number, and tense of the verb.

Person and Number. A verb that is used with *I* or *we* is said to be in the *first person* — for example, "I *built* the house." A verb that is used with *you* is said to be in the *second person* — for example, "You *built* the house." A verb that is used with a third-person pronoun or noun is said to be in the *third person*. The following sentences illustrate the third-person form of the verb :

1. He *does* the work.
2. The carpenter *does* the work.

A verb that is used with a singular subject is said to be in the singular number — thus, "He *builds* the house." A verb that is used with a plural subject is said to be in the plural number — thus, "They *build* the house."

The verb *be* has more forms of person and number than any other verb. It has no passive voice.

FORMS OF THE VERB *Be*

Present

I am
you are
he is

we are
you are
they are

Past

I was
you were
he was

we were
you were
they were

Future

I shall be
you will be
he will be

we shall be
you will be
they will be

Present Perfect

I have been
you have been
he has been

we have been
you have been
they have been

Past Perfect

I had been
you had been
he had been

we had been
you had been
they had been

The verb *have* has a great many forms that should be carefully learned. You will see later that it is used with other verbs to make the perfect-tense phrases.

FORMS OF THE VERB *Have*

Present

I have
you have
he has

we have
you have
they have

Past

I had
you had
he had

we had
you had
they had

Future

I shall have
you will have
he will have

we shall have
you will have
they will have

Present Perfect

I *have had*^d
you *have had*
he *has had*

we *have had*
you *have had*
they *have had*

Tense. You have seen that a verb may change its form to denote present or past time — for example, *writes, wrote*. This change of form is called tense. A form that denotes present time is said to be in the *present tense*, and one that denotes past time is said to be in the *past tense*. Occasionally the present form denotes future time — as, “He *goes* to Washington to-morrow.” Examples of this kind are very rare because there is a special verb phrase that denotes future time. Many years ago the present form had to do the work of the future phrase. The future verb phrase is made up of *shall* or *will* and the infinitive form of the verb — as, “I *shall go*.”

By the use of a verb phrase beginning with *has, have, or had*, a verb may be made to show completed action. We are accustomed to classify such phrases as *present perfect, past perfect, and future perfect* tenses. If the action is completed at the present time, *have* or *has* is used in the phrase — thus: “I *have driven*, he *has driven*.” If the action was completed in a definite past time, *had* is used in the phrase — thus: “I *had driven* to the city yesterday.”

In the passive voice verbs have the same tenses. The passive verb phrase is made up of the forms of the verb *be* and the past participle of other verbs. Determine the tense of each of the following passive verb phrases :

1. I am seen
2. I was seen

3. I shall be seen
4. I have been seen
5. I had been seen
6. I shall have been seen

Special Use of the Verb *Be*. Read the following sentences and observe the use of the verb *be*:

1. If John *were* here, I would help him.
2. *Were* he careful, he would not have so many accidents.
3. I wish he *were* here.
4. Would that they *were* safe at home.
5. She acted as if she *were* innocent.

You can easily see that the form *were* is not used to denote past time. It is used for an entirely different purpose — namely, to show that the assertions are not made as facts. When a speaker or writer wishes to state a condition that is contrary to fact, he uses *were*. Also in expressing a wish that is contrary to fact he uses *were*. Conditional clauses are frequently introduced by *if*, *though*, and *unless*, but the condition is by no means always contrary to fact. In the following sentences the condition is stated as a fact or as an admission, and *were* is not used:

1. If I *was* mistaken, I meant to do the right thing.
2. If Harold *was* there, he did n't see the stranger.
3. If I *was* younger, I was not weaker than he.

Sometimes the form *be* is used in a very formal and polite manner in motions and resolutions — thus:

1. I move that William Brown *be* made chairman.
2. It is resolved that George Wilson *be* given a vote of thanks.
3. The President urged that all loyal Americans *be* unusually saving of the food supply.

From this discussion you may learn that it is not good present-day usage to say, "If I *was* you, I would go" and "I wish I *was* in New York." You should form the habit of using *were* in all such cases.

Regular and Irregular Verbs. You have no doubt noticed that some verbs form their past tense and past participle by the addition of *d*, *ed*, or *t*, to the present and that others have a change of word or a vowel change in the past tense. A verb that forms its past tense and past participle by the addition of *d*, *ed*, or *t* is called a *regular verb* — for example, *walk, walked, walked*. A verb that forms its past tense or past participle in any other way is called an *irregular verb* — for example, *write, wrote, written*. The present-tense form, or the root form, the past, and the past participle are called the *principal parts* of a verb. The regular verbs present practically no difficulties, but the irregular verbs are very frequently misused. The past and present-tense forms and the past and past-participle forms are often confused both in written and oral work.

The following is a list of the principal parts of verbs commonly misused :

attack	attacked	attacked
be	was	been
beat	beat	beat, beaten
begin	began	begun
break	broke	broken
burst	burst	burst
choose	chose	chosen
cling	clung	clung
come	came	come
dive	dived	dived
do	did	done
draw	drew	drawn

drink	drank	drunk
drive	drove	driven
drown	drowned	drowned
eat	ate	eaten
fall	fell	fallen
fight	fought	fought
fling	flung	flung
flow	flowed	flowed
forbid	forbade	forbidden
freeze	froze	frozen
get	got	got, gotten
give	gave	given
go	went	gone
grow	grew	grown
know	knew	known
pay	paid	paid
plead	pleaded	pleaded
prove	proved	proved
ride	rode	ridden
ring	rang	rung
run	ran	run
see	saw	seen
shine	shone	shone
show	showed	shown
shrink	shrank	shrunk
sing	sang	sung
slay	slew	slain
sling	slung	slung
speak	spoke	spoken
spring	sprang	sprung
take	took	taken
teach	taught	taught
think	thought	thought
wear	wore	worn
write	wrote	written

The following verbs do not change their forms :

bid (<i>to offer</i>)	bid	bid
burst	burst	burst
cost	cost	cost

hit	hit	hit
hurt	hurt	hurt
let	let	let
put	put	put
rid	rid	rid
set (<i>to place</i>)	set	set

Similar Verbs. Study carefully the following similar verbs :

1. *Sit, set.* *To sit* means *to rest*. *To set* means *to place* something. *Set* is transitive and should be followed by an object unless it is used in the passive voice. There are certain idioms, however, which must be accepted without explanation — for example :

1. The sun *sets*.
2. We *set out* for the West.

However, the normal use of these verbs is illustrated in the following sentences :

1. The boy *sat* down to rest.
2. Henry *set* the box on the table.

set	(<i>transitive</i>)	set	set
sit	(<i>intransitive</i>)	sat	sat

2. *Lie, lay.* *To lie* means *to recline*. *To lay* means *to place* something. *To lie* also means to tell a falsehood.

lay	(<i>transitive</i>)	laid	laid
lie	(<i>intransitive</i>)	lay	lain
lie	(<i>to tell a lie</i>)	lied	lied

The present participle of *lie* is *lying* and of *lay* is *laying*.

3. *Rise, raise.* *To rise* means *to ascend*. *To raise* means to cause something *to ascend*. *To raise* is

transitive, and its present participle is *raising*.
The present participle of *rise* is *rising*.

rise	(intransitive)	rose	risen
raise	(transitive)	raised	raised

4. *Lose, loose.* *To lose* means *to be without something*. *To loose* means *to let loose*.

lose	lost	lost
loose	loosed	loosed

5. *Flee, fly.* *To flee* means *to run away*.

flee	fled	fled
fly	flew	flown

6. *Bid.* This verb has two sets of principal parts — thus :

bid (to offer)	bid	bid
bid (to command)	bade	bidden

7. *Teach, learn.* *To teach* means *to impart knowledge* and it is the teacher's act. *To learn* is the pupil's act.

teach	taught	taught
learn	learned, learnt	learned, learnt

8. *Wake, awake.* *To wake* means *to cause some one to awake*. *To awake* is a person's act of becoming awake. The first is transitive.

wake	waked, woke	waked
awake	awaked, awoke	awaked

9. *Leave, let.* *To let* means *to permit* and should not be confused with *to leave*.

leave	left	left
let	let	let

10. *Got, have.* The verb *to have* means *to possess something*. *To get* means *to obtain something*. One should not say, "I have got a pencil", but "I have a pencil."

get
have

got
had

got, gotten
had

Exercise 1

Choose the correct form of the verb and give a reason for your choice :

1. I (seen, have seen) many such accidents.
2. After we had (eat, eaten) our lunch, we went to the park.
3. George (done, did) the work.
4. Ida was (chose, chosen) president of her class.
5. After dinner the carpenter (begun, began) to build a cabinet.
6. The teacher (bid, bade) me be more prompt.
7. The frost had (burst, bursted) the pipe in the yard.
8. Mother told me (to lie, to lay) down and (lay, laid) the book by my side.
9. We had (went, gone) but a short distance, when we (come, came) upon a large mound.
10. The lady looked as if she (was, were) almost (froze, frozen) to death.
11. We all (awoke, woke) at six o'clock.
12. I had (wrote, written) a letter to my friend a few days ago.
13. The leaves were (blowed, blown) over the yard.
14. If I (was, were) you, I should be more careful.
15. There (is, are) two questions that must be answered.
16. Yesterday we (drunk, drank) from the spring.
17. The prisoner was (broke, broken) in spirit.
18. The pupil (done, did) as well as he could.
19. The work can't be (did, done) without great effort.
20. Father ordered me to (sit, set) the box on the porch.
21. We (sat, set) the hen during the week of our vacation.
22. The army had (flown, fled) at the approach of the enemy.
23. (Leave, let) me go.
24. Each pupil (has got, has) a book.

25. You (have got, have) to do as the employer commands.
26. No one has money (to loose, to lose).
27. Will it be safe if I (lie, lay) here for an hour?
28. This crime has (shook, shaken) men's confidence in real estate men.
29. The mason has (lain, laid) all the brick.
30. When I had (sat, set) there for a while, I decided to go.
31. My friend has (showed, shown) me many favors.
32. After we had (shook, shaken) hands, we parted.
33. The curtain (raises, rises) at eight o'clock.
34. The children (rose, raised) their hands.
35. No one (bid, bade) more than a dollar for the cake.
36. Hector was (slayed, slain) by Achilles.
37. (Lose, loose) him and (let, leave) him go.
38. The giant (drunk, drank) all the wine.
39. The bell (rung, rang) early yesterday.
40. I have (saw, seen) many good shows in my time.
41. When we had (rose, risen), we prepared to (sit, set) out for the village.
42. He (laid, lay) his burden down and (sat, set) down near it.
43. The birds had (fled, flew, flown) to the tall trees in the forest.
44. The ship (lay, laid) quietly at anchor.
45. Having (rode, ridden) to the store, he bought supplies.
46. The boy (pled, pleaded) with his father for his forgiveness.
47. The robber (burst, busted) open the door.
48. The girl had (forgot, forgotten) her promise.
49. The child was (laying, lying) near the fire.
50. When we had (went, gone) many miles on our journey, we saw the prisoner who had (flown, fled).
51. Would that I (was, were) in France.
52. I (taken, took) him to be the captain of the team.
53. The Indians (slain, slayed, slew) all the women and children.
54. The boy (throwed, threw) a stone through the window.
55. The anchor was (throwed, thrown) overboard.
56. The sun (shone, shown, shined) very brightly.
57. I move that William (be, is) elected chairman.
58. I (done, did) the best I could.
59. The sun (sits, sets) in the west.
60. The chairman (rose, raised).
61. (Raising, rising) to his feet, the stranger began to speak.
62. The boy (got, has) the book from the shelf.

63. The swimmer (dove, dived) into the water.
64. The tramp (eat, et, ate) his lunch by the roadside.
65. After he had (eat, et, eaten), he (set, sat) out for a long journey.

Some Common Errors. Note carefully the following errors :

1. The expression *had ought* should not be used. It is better to say simply *ought*, *should*, or *should have* — thus :

1. The boy *ought* to have studied.
2. The work *should have* been done.
3. The pupils *should* study.

2. When you use the past infinitive, you should not put in the preposition *of*. Be careful to say *to have gone*, *to have seen*, *to have done*, etc. Do not say *to of gone*, *to of seen*, and *to of done*.

3. Do not use *of* instead of *have* after *ought*, *could*, *must*, *had*, etc. Write these expressions as follows :

1. He *ought to have* done the work. (not *ought of*)
2. George *should have* come earlier. (not *should of*)
3. The baby *must have* fallen. (not *must of*)
4. If he *had done* the work, he would be paid. (not *had of*)
5. The secretary *should not have* written the letter. (not *should not of*)
6. One *ought not* to do an injustice to a child. (not *hadn't ought*)

4. Do not omit the infinitive after the verb *want* in various colloquial expressions.

1. I *want to come* in. (not I *want in*)
2. I *want to go* out. (not I *want out*)
3. I *want to get* off. (not I *want off*)

5. Do not confuse verbs and nouns — such as *lend* and *loan*, *choose* and *choice*, *shoot* and *shots*. *Lend*

is a verb and *loan* is a noun; *choose* is a verb and *choice* is a noun.

1. The banker *will lend* me the money.
2. I arranged for a *loan*.
3. It is my *choice*. (not *choose*)
4. We heard the *shots*. (not *shoots*)

Common Contractions. In ordinary English you are no doubt accustomed to the use of a great many contractions. It is, therefore, well to learn the most common of them. An apostrophe shows that a letter or letters have been left out.

is not	is n't
was not	was n't
does not	does n't
did not	did n't
has not	has n't
should not	should n't
could not	could n't
are not	are n't
were not	were n't
have not	have n't
do not	don't
would not	would n't
I will	I 'll
we will	we 'll
you will	you 'll
he will	he 'll
they will	they 'll
they are	they 're
you have	you 've
where is	where 's
it is	it 's

The word *ain't* should never be used. If you want to use a contracted form, you should find the right one. Use *is n't* and *are n't* instead of this

form. Also be careful to use *has n't* and *have n't* for *ain't got* and *hain't got*.

1. I *have n't* my book.
2. The little girl *has n't* any pencil.

Remember that you should use *don't* only where *do not* would be correct. Always use *does n't* with a singular third person pronoun or noun as subject — thus :

1. He *does n't* write well.
2. John *does n't* know me. (not *don't know*)

CHAPTER NINETEEN

I. REPORTING VISITS TO POINTS OF INTEREST

Visits to factories and other points of interest will be instructive and will furnish many occasions for speaking and writing. You will want to tell other classes about your trip and, therefore, should write an account of it. The best one should be sent to the school paper.

PROJECT XIX. VISITING A FACTORY OR MUSEUM

Talk to the Class. With the class as a club and the president or some other member presiding, make a talk in which you suggest some interesting place to visit — such as, a shirt factory, a candy factory, a coffee and spice concern, a tobacco factory, an electrical company, the Art Museum, etc. Begin as follows: “Mr. President, I wish to tell the class what factory or museum we should visit.” When all have finished speaking, the class should vote to decide what place shall be visited.

Planning the Visit. The president of the class should call on the teacher to explain the purpose of the visit and to state what he wishes each pupil to observe most carefully. Each member of the class should act as a reporter and write an interesting

account of the trip. Make such interviews as may be possible while at the factory and take notes on any points that will have value as news.

Writing a Letter. Write a letter to the company asking permission to visit the factory. State the purpose of the visit, the number in the class, and the time when you prefer to come. The best letter should be mailed.

Talk to the Class. Prepare a two-minute talk in which you tell about an interesting incident that occurred on your trip.

Written English. Prepare a written report of your trip. Make sure that your account possesses unity, coherence, and emphasis. *Unity* means holding to the point — that is, telling only what happened on the visit. *Coherence* means telling things in the right order — the time order, in this case, or the order in which things occurred. *Emphasis* means giving more space to the important ideas. In order to secure these qualities, prepare an outline and strike out everything that does not belong to your subject. Next arrange each point in the proper order. You can take care of emphasis in the actual writing of your report by giving more details to important points.

When all reports are ready, they should be read to the class. Then a vote should be taken to determine which is the most interesting news article. The best one can be submitted to the school paper.

Writing a Letter. If you wish to work in a factory or other business house during the summer vacation or on Saturdays, write a letter applying for the position. Most applications are made orally, but a brief letter is generally written asking for an inter-

view. The following letter may be used as a model :

5606 Etzel Avenue,
St. Louis, Missouri,
June 20, 1923.

The Phoenix Pharmacy Company,
Jefferson and Cass Avenues,
St. Louis, Missouri.

Gentlemen :

Through your advertisement in to-day's *Globe-Democrat*, I learn that you wish to employ a reliable boy to work in your drug store. Believing that I am qualified to do the work, I wish to make application for the position.

I am fourteen years of age and in perfect health. I have almost completed my second year in the junior high school. Last summer I was employed at the Butler Brothers' Pharmacy in this city, and I wish to refer you to the manager, Mr. Clark Reade, 1020 Lackland Avenue. I wish also to refer you to the pastor of our church, Rev. George Smith, 1220 Lackland Avenue, who will be glad to answer any questions concerning my character.

If you are interested in my application, I shall be glad to call at the store to-morrow morning or at any other convenient time.

Yours very truly,
Charles Ring.

Dramatizing the Interview. Having secured an interview, you should make the most of it. This means that you must be prepared to state your qualifications and experience. You must be especially careful about your manners and language. Politeness and good English have secured many a good job.

Choose some one of your classmates to play the part of employer and hold an interview with him. Present the points mentioned in the foregoing paragraph and make your answers polite and convincing.

II. THE VERB (*Continued*)

Shall and Will. If *shall* and *will* were used merely as signs of the future tense, they would require very little study; but they are used to express other ideas.

1. To express simple futurity use *shall* with *I* and *we*, and *will* with all other subjects.

<i>Singular</i>	<i>Plural</i>
I shall write	we shall write
you will write	you will write
he will write	they will write

2. To express volition (determination, command, promise) in the mind of the speaker use *will* with *I* and *we*, and *shall* with all other subjects.

<i>Singular</i>	<i>Plural</i>
I will write	we will write
you shall write	you shall write
he shall write	they shall write

3. In questions use *shall* with *I* and *we*, and with other subjects use the auxiliary expected in the answer — thus:

1. *Shall* we report to-morrow?
2. *Will* you assist me? (Promise. I will.)
3. *Shall* James accompany us? (Answer. He shall.)
4. *Will* the manuscript be completed to-morrow? (Future time. It will.)

4. In indirect speech to express another's thought for both futurity and volition (promise, determination, etc.) use the same auxiliary that he himself would use. Determine what auxiliary would

be used if the subordinate clause were an independent one.

1. George says that he *will* go with us to the city.
(Independent : I will go with you.)
2. Henry thinks that he *shall* be misunderstood.
(Independent : I shall be misunderstood.)
3. The Board of Education has decided that the school
shall be closed.
(Independent : The school shall be closed.)

Should and Would. Note carefully the following rules :

1. *Should* and *would* are the past tense forms of *shall* and *will* and are so used when they express futurity or determination in some past time — thus :

1. I knew that I *should* succeed.
2. I knew that you *would* succeed.
3. John said that he *would* do the work.
4. I promised that I *would* do the work.

2. *Should* is used in conditional clauses — thus :

1. If I *should* act unjustly, I should gain nothing.
2. If you *should* act unjustly, you would gain nothing.
3. If he *should* act unjustly, he would gain nothing.

3. *Should* is often used to express the idea of duty — thus :

Children *should* obey their parents.

4. *Should* and *would* are often used in softened statements — thus :

1. I *should* think so.
2. Lastly, I *should* advise.
3. I *would* urge.

Exercise 1

Choose the correct form and give a reason for your choice.

1. I (shall, will) meet you at the city hall.
2. We (shall, will) then continue our studies.
3. I (shall, will) be pleased to meet your cousin.
4. No one (shall, will) injure this little child if I can prevent it.
5. You (will, shall) find the superintendent a pleasant old gentleman.
6. He (will, shall) be glad to accommodate you.
7. Yes, I (shall, will) certainly do my duty.
8. When (shall, will) we see you again?
9. Mary promised that she (should, would) come earlier.
10. If I (should, would) fail to do my duty, I should regret it.
11. (Shall, will) your clerk wait on me now?
12. Arthur (will, shall) have his own way in this matter.
13. What (will, shall) he think of our failure to obey him?
14. I asked him if he (would, should) be there.
15. I (will, shall) drown; nobody (shall, will) help me.
16. "They (shall, will) not pass," said the French.
17. The French said that the Germans (should, would) not pass.
18. (Shall, will) we yield to a foreign foe?
19. As much as I (should, would) regret to part with my money,
I (should, would) give it all for my country.
20. What (would, should) you do if you were in my place?

May and Might, Can and Could. Note the following rules:

1. *May* is the auxiliary that is commonly used to assert permission.

(1) *May* I go with you?

(2) You *may* proceed.

May is also used to express a wish — for example, "*May* you live to see many more happy years." It is often used to express possibility — for example, "The old lady thinks her son *may* be somewhere in France." *Might* is the past tense of *may*.

2. *Can* is used to assert power or ability. It should never be used to take the place of *may* to denote permission. In the following sentences it denotes power or ability :

1. We *can* lift the box.
2. *Can* we solve the problem? (*Could* is the past tense of *can*.)

Exercise 2

Choose the correct word and give a reason for your choice.

1. (Can, may) a man do ten men's work?
2. (May, can) I go with you to the concert?
3. Yes, you (can, may) use my car to-day.
4. How (could, might) you do such a thing?
5. The manager said I (could, might) have the position.
6. You (can, may) have my pencil for a while.
7. No one (may, can) do as he pleases.
8. You (might, could) do the work better if you were larger
9. He said that you (could, might) go.
10. Two (can, may) do more work than one.

Pronunciation. Inaccurate pronunciation of the common verbs has become so general that a few remarks on this subject may be helpful. In ordinary English you frequently hear *get* called *git* and *have to* called *haf to*. If you will observe the speech of your classmates, you will doubtless hear many others — such as *wuz* (was), *gonna* (going to), *ketch* (catch), *attacted* (attacked), and the like.

How should the following verbs be pronounced?

heard
attacked
drowned
catch

wept
don't know
was n't
can't you

Remember to pronounce the final *g* in the *ing* endings. Say *running* (not *runnin'*). Pronounce the following words correctly:

writing
stopping
staying
fighting
holding
helping
tying

studying
reading
spelling
referring
rolling
controlling
suffering.

CHAPTER TWENTY

I. A READING CLUB

On the shelves of the public library you will find hundreds of books — fiction, biography, travel, popular science, current events, poetry, and drama. You should learn to enjoy at least several from each group. The books are not all equally good. Some will give more pleasure and inspire higher ideals of life than others. You cannot read them all — only the best and most profitable. What books, therefore, should be selected? How can you get the most pleasure from your reading? How can you encourage others to read the books you like? It should prove interesting to choose a list of desirable books, to read many of them, to dramatize scenes from the best chapters, and to report on them. This purpose can best be accomplished through the organization of a reading club.

PROJECT XX. CONDUCTING A READING CLUB

Planning the Work. Although your class is already organized, it will be advisable to organize a reading club as a separate society with its own president and librarian. The president may then divide the membership into groups for the purpose of exchanging books and undertaking other divisions of the work that may be necessary.

As far as possible, the club should work out its own plan. The following suggestions, however, may prove helpful :

First, select a list of books suitable for your grade. Ask your parents and teacher to name desirable titles and write a letter to the librarian of the public library to send you a list. Second, to encourage reading, provide certificates or buttons to be given to each member who reads a given number of books, say five. The librarian should keep a record of the books read by each pupil and should issue all certificates or buttons.

Begin the reading of some good book at once.

The following is a suggestive list of books, to which the club may add others or from which it may choose such as it desires :

Polly Oliver's Problem	Wiggin
The Secret Garden	Burnett
Being a Boy	Warner
Prince and Pauper	Clemens
Tom Sawyer	Clemens
The Christmas Carol	Dickens
An Italian School Boy's Journal	De Amicis
Stories of Inventions	Doubleday
Jackanapes	Ewing
An Indian Boyhood	Eastman
Geographical Readers	Carpenter
Anne of Green Gables	Montgomery
A New England Boyhood	Hale
Nights with Uncle Remus	Harris
The Dawn of American History	Nida
The Call of the Wild	London
Nobody's Boy	Malot
Campfire Girls of Brightwood	Blanchard
Katrina	Deland
Montcalm and Wolfe	Parkman
A Pretty Tory	Lincoln

Mrs. Wiggs of the Cabbage Patch	Rice
The Deerslayer	Cooper
Emmy Lou	Madden
Undine	Fouqué
The Story of King Arthur and His Knights . .	Pyle
Heroes of the Middle West	Catherwood

Talk to the Class. Prepare a two-minute talk in which you tell the members of your club about the most interesting book you have ever read. State the title and the name of the author. Let your purpose be to stimulate interest in the book. Do not tell so much as to defeat your purpose. Instead of giving the whole plot of a story, for example, select a striking or amusing episode, a vivid description, or an interesting character.

Writing a Letter. Write a letter to the librarian of the public library asking him to send you a list of books suitable for pupils of the eighth grade. Tell him about your reading club and the purpose for which it was formed. The best letter should be mailed.

A Visit to the Public Library. Plan a visit to the public library, the purpose being to get better acquainted with the books it contains and how to find them. Find out all you can about the following:

1. The titles of the leading reference books and where they can be found
2. The children's reading room and the classes of books it contains
3. How to use the card catalogue
4. Readers' Guide to Periodical Literature

Put in your notebooks the titles of the leading reference books.

Written English. Choose an interesting character from a book you have just read and write a theme

about him. Tell why you admire him. Perhaps you will prefer to trace briefly his part in the story. If time permits, these character sketches should be read to the club and the most interesting one chosen by vote.

Writing a Dialogue. Write an imaginary dialogue between two characters taken from books you have read. Quotation marks are not required to inclose each speech. Merely set down the name of the speaker before each speech. Read your dialogue to the club. The best one may be sent to the school paper.

Dramatization. Dramatize interesting scenes or chapters from a book you have read. Read your work to the club. When all have read, decide by vote who has written the best play. The club should then offer criticism to improve the work, and when the final draft has been prepared, members should be assigned to act the various parts. After several rehearsals, the play should be given at an assembly session or before another class invited as your guests.

Talk to the Class. The club should now hear oral reports on books that have been read. Perhaps several recitation periods will be required. Each member should try to make his report so interesting that others will want to read the book he reviews. Be especially careful not to give so many details as to make your report tiresome. Unless you can think of a better plan, you may use the following outline:

1. The title of the book and the name of the author
2. The story in a few well-selected sentences
3. The most striking scenes

4. The most interesting characters
5. Why I liked the book

Giving a Club Program. In concluding the work of this project, prepare an interesting program consisting of the best work done in the reading club. The following is intended to be merely suggestive of the work that can be given :

Library Club Program :

1. Talk by a pupil on the life of the favorite author of the Reading Club
2. Song by the club
3. Dramatization of an interesting scene
4. Talk by the librarian of the Public Library
5. Report of the librarian of the Reading Club

II. INDEPENDENT EXPRESSIONS AND APPOSITIVES

Direct Address. You have learned that nouns and pronouns may be used as subject or object. Another use should now be added—namely, the noun as the name of the person or thing spoken to, or addressed. Read carefully the following sentences :

1. *John*, bring me the book.
2. You cannot go, *William*.
3. *Old Horse*, you must be very old.
4. *Mighty fortress*, you have been the center of many an interesting scene.
5. Do you think, *sir*, that I am a thief?
6. Don't do that, *you villain*!

Occasionally a pronoun is used in direct address.

1. Come here — *you* in the blue suit.
2. I beg you to listen — *you* who are interested in good speeches.

Exclamation. A noun may be used independently in exclamations.

1. *A sail! A sail!* how I wish we could see a sail!
2. *Goodness!* what a mistake you have made!
3. Oh, the *joy* of living!

Many words are similarly used to express sudden feeling — such as *ah, oh, alas, pshaw, fie, hurrah, and ha*. They are called *interjections*. Many authors hold that the interjection is used independently, but you should perhaps consider it as a modifier of the entire assertion with which it occurs. Sometimes the feeling of the speaker or writer is not confined to a single word, but runs through the whole sentence. Such a sentence is said to be exclamatory. “Behold! behold! Ernest is himself the likeness of the Great Stone Face!” In speaking, a sentence may be made exclamatory by inflection and accent. In writing, a sentence may be designated as exclamatory by the exclamation point at the close.

Independent Infinitive Expressions. Sometimes infinitives are used independently, as in the following:

1. *To tell the truth*, I do not like my work.
2. *Speaking generally*, men are less patient than women.
3. *To be sure*, they cannot succeed.
4. *To be exact*, there were four thousand.

Your attention has already been called to the noun and participle in the absolute phrase as making up an expression seemingly independent, but having the force of an adverbial modifier.

Appositives. A noun is often added to another to explain it. When so used it is said to be in appo-

sition with the noun it explains. Notice the nouns in apposition in the following sentences :

1. John, *the carpenter*, called to-day.
2. My mother, *a woman* of eighty, died this year.
3. Our principal, *an old gentleman*, was absent to-day.
4. The tall building, *the observation tower*, cost a hundred thousand dollars.
5. We gave the work to our servant, *an old negro*.

Sometimes a pronoun is used as an appositive modifier.

1. That boy, *he* in the red sweater, made a touchdown.
2. He is an infidel, *one* who does not believe in God.

An appositive may be a series of words explaining a general or formal term. Sometimes such a series is introduced by *namely*, *as*, *such as*, *for example*, and the like.

1. Germany has produced many things that we need badly — *dyes, chemicals, and medical instruments*.
2. Three States I have known intimately — namely, *Indiana, Illinois, and Missouri*.
3. I have read many good books in my high-school days — such as, *Robinson Crusoe, Henry Esmond, and Silas Marner*.

Again, a noun may be in apposition with an entire predication.

Father liked to tell humorous stories, *a habit* his sons also have.

Exercise 1

Select and explain the independent expressions in the following sentences. Find nouns and pronouns in direct address.

1. William, bring me your book.
2. The sheriff, a man of fifty, seemed very active.

3. The success of the war, a thing that interested all of us, depended on our ability to save.
4. There were three sports which my brother enjoyed — namely, hunting, fishing, and racing.
5. Good heavens! what a brilliant stroke he made!
6. In France — the land of liberty, equality, and fraternity — a woman is not even allowed to vote for a man.
7. There is indeed one thing for which we are all fighting — democracy.
8. Good-by, old Year, we will meet you again in the Judgment.
9. Generally speaking, girls have better memory than boys.
10. Oh! the agony of the prison camps! may every one of you escape it!
11. The giant represents strength of body, or brute force.
12. The Pankhurst family split up into two factions — the one pacifist, the other militarist.
13. Poor man! He died there of fever the next year.
14. Rembrandt, the greatest painter of the seventeenth century, was born at Leyden, Holland, July 15, 1607.

Analysis. Notice carefully the analysis of the following sentences:

1. "Henry, bring me the chair."

This is a declarative sentence. The subject is "you" understood, and the word "Henry" is independent by address. The complete predicate is "bring me the chair", of which "bring" is the predicate verb and "chair" the object. The word "me" is the indirect object.

2. "John, the architect, built the house."

This is a declarative sentence. The complete subject is "John, the architect", of which "John" is the subject substantive and "architect" a noun in apposition with it. The complete predicate is "built the house", of which "built" is the predicate verb and "house" the object.

3. "Poor boy! He will never return from France."

This is a declarative sentence. The subject is "He", and the complete predicate "will never return from France." The predicate verb is "will return", and the phrase "from France" is an adverbial modifier of the verb. The exclamation "Poor boy" is used independently.

4. "To tell the truth, none was prepared for the shock."

This is a declarative sentence. The subject is "none", and the complete predicate is "was prepared for the shock." The predicate verb is "was prepared." The prepositional phrase "for the shock" is adverbial and modifies the predicate verb. "To tell the truth" is an infinitive used independently.

Exercise 2

Analyze the following sentences:

1. Mexico, our neighbor, has not been a good friend.
2. There were six great New England poets — Bryant, Whittier, Longfellow, Holmes, Emerson, and Lowell.
3. Alas! How he has degenerated!
4. The child always was unfortunate, poor Bessie!
5. Noise! I have never heard such a noise before.
6. Mr. Wilson, the recent President, was a college professor.
7. Give this package to Mr. Jones, the hardware dealer.
8. Many centuries ago the Romans conquered the Belgians, one of the bravest races in the world.
9. The house, a work of art, was the pride of the community.
10. The general advanced to the hills, nature's great fortress.

Punctuation. A noun used in direct address should be set off by commas—as, "*Henry*, bring me the letter."

An appositive expression should generally be set off by commas.

1. The candidate, *Mr. Hughes*, spoke in the afternoon.
2. The Jefferson Memorial, *a building of white stone*, is a very imposing structure.

Sometimes an appositive is so closely connected with the word it modifies that no commas are necessary.

1. I *myself* know the circumstances.
2. Your *brother George*.

Appositives introduced by *as*, *namely*, *such as*, *for example*, and the like, are generally set off by the dash.

There are two very important parts of speech — *namely*, *nouns and verbs*.

If the expression comes at the close of the sentence and if the introductory word is omitted, it is set off by the dash.

1. One man I hate — *the coward*.
2. Two things I want — *money and friends*.

Independent expressions, unless exclamatory, are set off by a comma.

1. *To be sure*, I will do the work.
2. *Speaking generally*, the work is a failure.

An exclamatory sentence should be followed by an exclamation point. When the feeling culminates in a single word, an interjection, the point is also used after the word.

Alas! How time has changed him!

Exercise 3

Punctuate the following sentences :

1. What a dirty and tumbled down place this is
2. In this country we should have but one class of people
Americans
3. The more the children know, the more they want the best
for the city good roads fine water safety from fire honest
and truthful officers
4. Ohio officially adopted McKinley's favorite flower the scarlet
carnation as its emblem
5. There is the barrel cactus or visnaga which often comes to
the traveler's rescue in the desert
6. To be sure cheap coal is not so good as the expensive
varieties
7. Gentlemen we must support the soldiers in the training
camps
8. Children obey your parents
9. The name columbine comes from the Latin for *dove*
10. Charles the First was an unfortunate king
11. There are two books I like to read namely *Treasure Island*
and *Tom Brown's School Days*
12. Some cities were planned so that they would become beauti-
ful places such as Washington D C
13. Washington our first president was very popular with the
people
14. As Black Beauty the horse in the story worked better for
being happy and comfortable so may we
15. General Pershing our commander in France thought the
war would last two years longer

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